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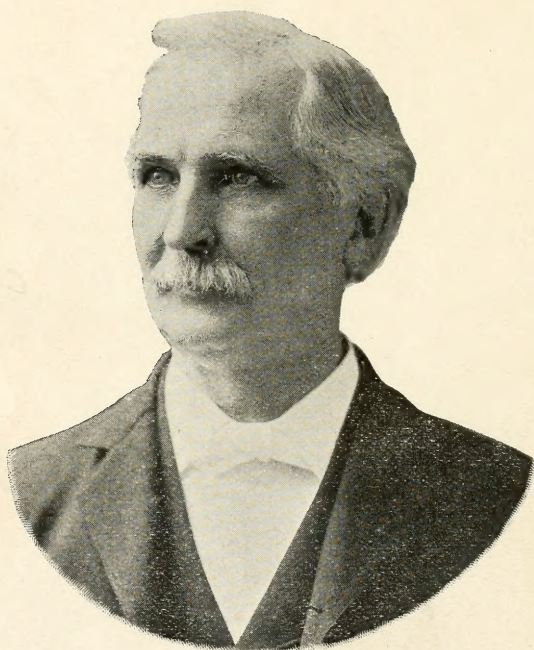
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*Yours Sincerely,
W. H. Smith.*

THE HISTORY
OF THE
STATE OF INDIANA

FROM THE
Earliest Explorations by the French to
the Present Time.

CONTAINING AN ACCOUNT OF THE PRINCIPAL
CIVIL, POLITICAL AND MILITARY
EVENTS FROM 1763
TO 1903.

BY
WILLIAM HENRY SMITH.

V. I.
VOLUME I.

1903.
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DEDICATION.

To General James R. Carnahan:

You were one of the students, who, in 1861, laid down their books, took up arms, and for four years served gallantly and well to defend the unity of the Nation. In later years you have done much to make permanent the record of the proud achievements of Indiana's soldiers. In the early months of the civil war you were my comrade—in the years since the close of the war we have been friends. Permit me, in recognition of your services as a soldier, your labors in behalf of Indiana's record, and our long period of friendship, to dedicate these volumes to you.

THE AUTHOR.

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INTRODUCTION.

Those who have given attention to the subject are aware that the history of Indiana is only beginning to be known and understood. In its first century the settlements were almost exclusively French, and these not large or important. Their real history has been obscured, partly by lack of access to reliable historical documents and partly by misunderstanding what was accessible. It is but sixteen years since it was first pointed out that the original discovery and exploration of the region was by La Salle; that he exercised a large control over events here for some years; that the permanent settlements were not of so early a date as had been supposed; that slavery not only existed among the French but also was continued down to the admission of the state in 1816; and that this question was the great central feature of political controversy in the territorial period.

Since then much additional information has been acquired. Within the past year it has been demonstrated that the establishment at Vincennes was made in the summer of 1831, and the church and military influences leading to the establishment have been made apparent. At the same time progress has been made in the development of the later history of the state—the second century—in which the new American population was much more concerned in making history than in recording it. It is only beginning to be realized by the people of Indiana, as well as by the outside world, that a remarkable civilization has developed here, as shown by our product of unusual men in statesmanship, invention, military affairs, literature, art and other lines of development.

Under such conditions it is practically certain that our

present view of the State's history is to some extent tentative—subject to revision under further investigation. And it is also inevitable that the steps of progress in the development of our history should be separated and scattered, making the work of gathering them a tedious one. Mr. Smith, in this revised edition of his History of Indiana, has performed a valuable service in gathering the available material together in a concrete form, so that a view of the development of the State can be had by the general reader without extensive research through scattered documents. He has long been a practical student of the current history of Indiana, acquainted with its public men, and identified with its political and official life, as well as a student of its earlier history. His work will be found useful by all who have occasion to investigate any period of the history of the State, and will furnish the most complete general view of it that is now accessible.

J. P. DUNN.

Indianapolis, January 10, 1903.

CHAPTER I.

THE MOUND BUILDERS.

When man first appeared on the soil of America is unknown; the record is lost in the misty ages of the past. But certain it is that for thousands of years before the age of history man dwelt in America. When the Europeans first landed on the American coast, they found in the unknown world a race of people who had traditions running back for many centuries. So long had they been here that they had lost all knowledge or tradition of whence they came. It was a race different in almost every respect from any of the other known races of the world. But prior to their time, running back for many ages, there had been another race which had peopled the continent and governed it for centuries and possibly for thousands of years, but that race had disappeared so long before the Indians took possession, that the Red Man had no tradition of them. Whether this race was the predecessor or the successor of still another race which has left evidence of its existence, is not known. The Toltecs of Mexico, the predecessors of the Aztecs, left records reaching back for a thousand years before the Christian era, and yet these records reach not back far enough to give the world any knowledge of the race which built the famous buried cities of Central America. The ruins in Central America show that at one time there had existed a race far advanced in civilization, living in houses in walled cities. Those cities were large enough to have contained a population reaching far into the thousands, possessing great wealth and a knowledge of many of the

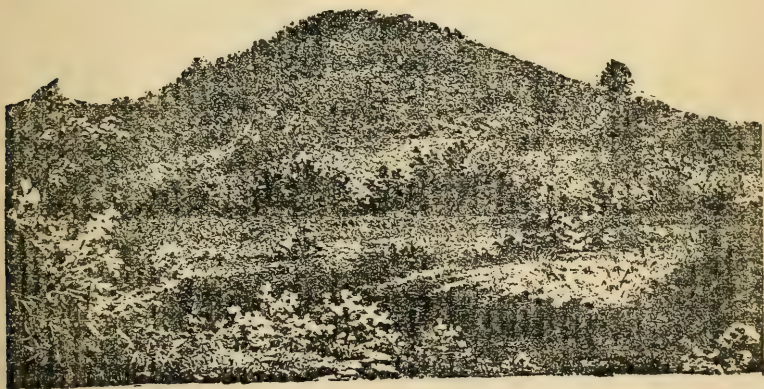
arts and sciences. The race that built and occupied those cities had disappeared, and the cities had been ruined and destroyed so long before the advent in Mexico of the Toltecs that the latter had no knowledge of them.

The growth of a people which depends for increase upon natural causes must of necessity be very slow; therefore, to have reached so great a population as occupied the ruined cities of Central America, the race must have dwelt upon this continent many centuries. To destroy a race, overturn its cities, and bury their ruins so deep that an occupation of the soil around them and over them, by another race for many centuries, revealed no knowledge of such ruins, must have required ages. Yet such is the history of Central America. In Indiana we find no trace of such a race, yet there is abundant evidence to show that at one time, long anterior to the coming of the Red Man, Indiana was quite densely populated by a race that lived, flourished and passed away without leaving any records except in its monuments, weapons, and utensils for domestic use. This has been called the race of Mound Builders. Who were they? Whence, came they? When, where and how did they disappear? These questions remain unanswered, yet the fact is patent that at one time Indiana was quite densely populated by them. The works left by this prehistoric race are of three kinds—fortifications, mounds and memorial pillars. This is not the usual classification, for what are here denominated memorial pillars are generally classed as mounds.

The mounds have been divided into three classes and designated as "Burial Mounds," "Temple Mounds," and "Mounds of Habitation." There is but little reason for believing that any of the mounds were ever used for habitation. No signs of excavations in them have ever been discovered. If they had been merely raised places upon which to build their houses, some of the remains of the houses would have been found in them, either in stone, sunburned brick, or the peculiar mold left by decayed timber. No such discoveries have ever been made. There is also but little reason for believing that any of them were used as temples or places of worship. The Mound Builders may have had, and doubtless did, some form of worship, but

there is nothing about the mounds to indicate that they were used for such a purpose. It is evident that all the mounds were built by the same race, although in some of them the remains of a later race have been found buried. Some of the mounds in America are very large, the largest being that on the plains of Cahokia, Illinois, opposite the city of St. Louis. It is seven hundred feet long by five hundred feet wide at the base, and is ninety-eight feet high. It covers eight acres of ground and contains nearly twenty million cubic feet of earth. Such a mound could only have been built by a race of slaves, and of itself gives strong evidence of a very dense population.

The Ohio Valley appears to have been about the center, and was possibly the seat of empire of this prehistoric race. The southern half of Indiana is dotted all over with its



MOUND NEAR VINCENNES.

works, and quite a number have been found in the northern half. Knox and Sullivan Counties were the most favored of any. Around the city of Vincennes there are more than forty large mounds and hundreds of small ones. On one farm there is a group of fifty-three. They are laid off in regular lines as if there was some specific design in their construction. One or more of the mounds of this group have been examined and found to contain human skeletons, and many specimens of pottery, and it is more than probable that the other mounds would yield a like product. Knox

County has three mounds that for symmetry of shape will rival any in the country. They are known as "Pyramid Mound," "Sugar-Loaf Mound," and "Terraced Mound." The first has a diameter from east to west of three hundred feet, and from north to south of one hundred and fifty feet. It has a level area on the summit of fifteen by fifty feet. It is fifty-seven feet high. The second is forty-four feet high and has an extreme diameter of two hundred and sixteen feet, and a lesser of one hundred and eighty feet. "Terraced Mound" is the largest of the three, having a height of sixty-seven feet and a diameter at the base of three hundred and sixty feet from east to west, and two hundred and eighty feet from north to south. The summit is reached by a winding roadway from the east. "Sugar-Loaf" has been examined and found to consist of alternate layers of loess sand, and charcoal and bones, all resting on a bed of red altar clay. There are four layers of charcoal and bones.

In the city of Vincennes was a very interesting mound, which has been entirely removed. The work of removal was carefully done and a vault grave discovered, containing skeletons, more or less decayed, closely packed together. There was no arrangement in the burials and the remains were so closely packed together and so mixed that they were nothing but a mass of bones. The vault had been dug in the surface of the earth and the interior coated with a white plaster of calcined mussel shells. The remains had then been placed and the exterior of the vault similarly coated. Over this had been placed a thick covering of black bituminous shale. At the center of the bottom of the vault was found a clustered sheaf of wing bones of the wild turkey. The sheaf contained thirty-five or forty bones, the larger ends being laid in one direction. The other ends were beveled in a peculiar manner. The mound had been erected over this vault. One mound in the town of Spencer, Owen County, yielded twenty-five wagon loads of bones, representing about five thousand bodies.

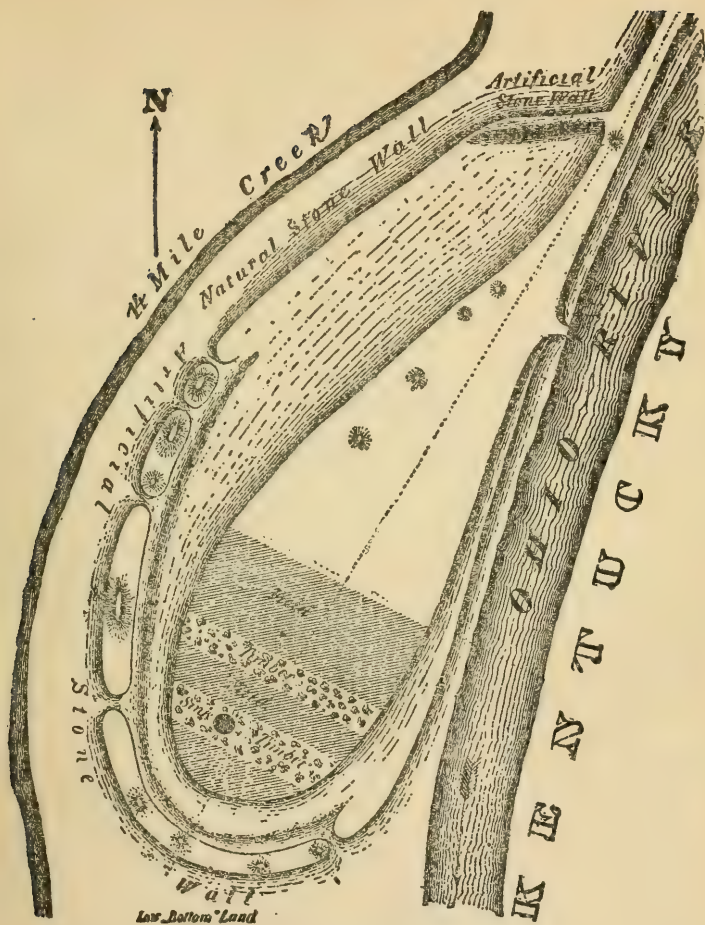
In Morgan County, within a few miles of Indianapolis, is a very beautiful mound. It is about one hundred feet in diameter and twenty feet high. Similar mounds, though of smaller dimensions, are found all over the southern half of Indiana, and there are many reasons for believing that they

are all burial mounds. Indiana has also quite a number of fortifications left by this ancient race. Some of them are of very peculiar structure, and prove that the Mound Builders must have attained to some degree of civilization, for they were able to form, in the construction of their works, perfect circles and perfect squares. They must have possessed regular scales of measurement and means of determining angles. Among their works we find squares, circles and octagons of great dimensions. They built great military works, surrounded by walls and ditches; some of them containing artificial lakes for supplying water to the garrison. They possessed a chain of fortifications reaching from the southern part of New York diagonally across the country to the Wabash River, and another chain commencing at a point on the Ohio River, in Clark County, Indiana, running northward into Madison County, thence eastward to Central Ohio, and thence southward through Kentucky to Tennessee. One of these enclosures in Ohio, on the Little Miami River, known as "Fort Ancient," has a circle of five miles and encloses one hundred acres. The embankments are from five to twenty feet high. It would have held a garrison of sixty thousand men, with their families and provisions. The embankment has seventy gateways. Numerous mounds and protecting works are scattered around. The most elaborate and complicated system of defensive works is found near Newark, Ohio. It consists of an extensive series of square, circular and polygonal enclosures, with mounds, ditches and connecting avenues. The works extend over four square miles of territory.

In Sullivan County, Indiana, near the town of Merom, is situated a very curious and interesting defensive work or fortification, built by the Mound Builders. It has been christened "Fort Azatlan." It is situated on a plateau on the east bank of the Wabash River. The river bank is of sandstone and very steep. The plateau is one hundred and seventy feet above the river and is a natural fortification. Its extreme length is about twelve hundred feet. At its northern end it is fifty feet wide, but it stretches out until it reaches a width of four hundred feet, and then narrows again gradually until at the southern end it is only one

hundred and twenty-five feet. On the east and along the southwestern part of the plateau are deep ravines. The weak places in this naturally strong position were strengthened by artificial walls. On the eastern side, and about three hundred and fifty feet from the southern end, the ravine makes an indenture of nearly one hundred and fifty feet. At this point is a magnificent spring and the line is protected by a double wall. The entrance is at the southern end and is protected by flanking walls extending inward about seventy-five feet. The walls here are about thirty feet thick. The interior of the fortification is dotted with depressions or sinks. They are circular in form and vary in width from ten to twenty feet. The supposition is that these pits were dwelling places of the garrisons. In the enclosure, as well as all around it, are burial mounds, showing that the place was quite densely populated for a very long period of time.

A few miles above Jeffersonville is an elevated pear-shaped plateau or ridge. On the east is the Ohio River, washing the base of the ridge. To the west is Fourteen Mile Creek, which, at the northern point or neck of the ridge, almost touches the river, but makes a wide sweep to the west and then to the south, finally emptying into the Ohio a few rods below the southern extremity of the high ground. From the top of this ridge is one of the finest views to be found in the West. The extreme northern point is two hundred and eighty feet above the level of the river, and from it the broad and beautiful river may be seen for many miles each way. It also overlooks the State of Kentucky far to the east and south. To the west are the fertile acres of Indiana. This pear-shaped ridge was fortified and strengthened by the Mound Builders until it became, for that period and for their mode of warfare, a perfect Gibraltar. The area enclosed is a space of about fifteen hundred feet long and five hundred feet wide at its widest point. At the northern point the ridge is two hundred and eighty feet above the river and slopes gradually to the southward, until at the lower timber line it is only one hundred and twenty feet above the river. The bottom land at the south end is sixty feet above the river. Along the river front is an abrupt escarpment of



OLD STONE FORT IN CLARK COUNTY.

rock, too steep to be scaled. A similar natural barrier exists on the northwest side of the ridge. At the extreme northwestern end, however, the natural wall breaks away into shelves or benches. To protect this angle an artificial wall was built along the slope of the hill to an elevation of seventy-five or eighty feet above its base, the last ten feet being vertical. This wall is one hundred and eighty feet long, and connects the natural wall of the creek side with

that of the river. At this point is a slight break in the cliff which affords a narrow passageway to the river.

At a point on the west side, and about middle way of the ridge, the natural wall again breaks away, and from there on around the south end until it strikes the river bluff, is a made stone wall ten feet high. The walls are laid up without the use of lime or cement, and some of the stones are very large. The inside of the wall is protected by a ditch twenty feet wide and five feet deep. Between the wall and the ditch is a series of earth mounds rising to the height of the wall. The sides of the mounds are protected by stone shields, the stones being set on end. At several places along the ditch channels have been cut and corresponding openings made in the wall. These were evidently for the purpose of carrying off the surplus water. On the top of the ridge are several distinct mounds, the one at the neck being the largest and highest. From its top an unobstructed view for miles in every direction is obtained. Nothing but the walls, ditch and mounds are left to tell of the race that had once occupied this fortification, except hundreds of flint arrow heads and stone battle axes, which have been picked up in the vicinity. About eight miles north of this stone fort is a circular enclosure. This is an earthwork of about two thousand feet in circumference. The embankment was originally about twelve feet high. In form it is almost a perfect circle. Pottery, kitchen refuse, fresh water shells and fragments of bones of various animals have been found in great abundance. From this enclosure to the stone fort is a line of signal or observation mounds.

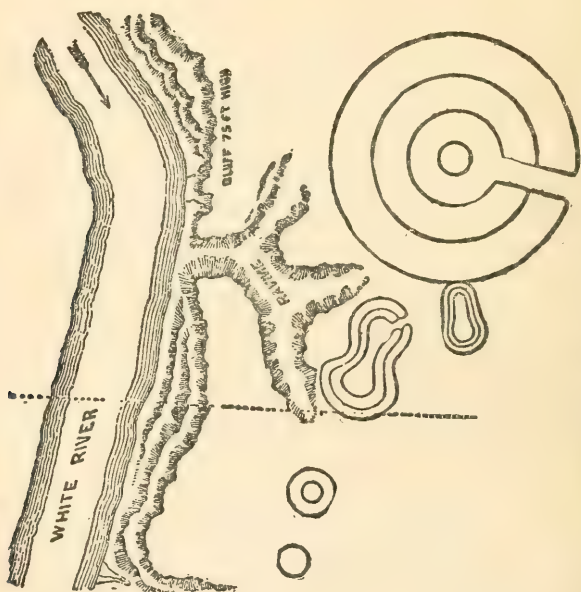
The third fortification in the series lies in the edge of Jefferson County, and is a stone enclosure. It is on the bank of Big Creek, and is eighty feet above the creek bed. The north and south sides of the enclosure are protected by natural walls from sixty to eighty feet high. On the east end is a made stone wall about four hundred feet long. This wall is curved so as to protect all points, and was originally about ten feet thick. On the west the natural walls come close together, forming a narrow neck. Across this narrow neck a made stone wall was thrown. The area enclosed is about ten acres. A short distance south of the enclosure are three curious stone mounds or memorial pillars.

The largest of the three is egg-shaped with a transverse diameter of one hundred and forty feet, and a conjugate of sixty feet. The other two are much smaller. With the exception of two on the Ohio River, not far from the "Stone Fort," these are the only stone mounds known in Indiana. The object for which these mounds were erected can only be conjectural, but the probability is they were intended as memorials of some stirring event in the history of the Mound Builders.

It was the custom of many of the ancient races of the world to commemorate important events by erecting pillars of stone. Thus Jacob set up a stone at Bethlehem, and Noah erected an altar when he came forth from the ark. When such pillars were set up by a race or tribe it was the custom for each member of the tribe to contribute a stone, and thus the size and importance of the pillar depended largely upon the numerical strength of the tribe. The custom was for the principal, or head man of the tribe, to place the first stone, then for each member of the tribe to follow and place his contribution on the pile. In many cases even the women and children would cast a stone upon the heap. These pillars were erected, sometimes to commemorate a great victory or a deliverance from some threatened danger; sometimes on the accession of a new ruler. From the shape of the stone mounds in Indiana, the most probable explanation of them is that they were intended as memorial pillars. Their existence can not reasonably be explained on any other theory.

In the County of Madison, and not far from the city of Anderson, is a section rich in archeological interest. Within half a mile of each other are two groups of interesting works, some of them in an excellent state of preservation. The bluffs on the south side of White River rise to a height of seventy-five feet. A broad and deep ravine extends a hundred or more feet to the southwest. Just south of the ravine, so as to be protected by it, and yet so as to overlook the river, the principal work is located. It is a circular embankment ten feet high, sixty-nine feet wide at the base, and broad enough on top to furnish a pleasant driveway for carriages. On the inside is a ditch sixty feet wide and ten feet deep. The diameter of the circle is four hundred

feet. On the southwest is a gateway thirty feet wide, the ditch terminating on each side of the entrance. To the west of this are four smaller enclosures, and to the east and southwest are three more. A half mile up the river is another group almost equally interesting. The magnitude of such works can be best gauged by a mention of the tools

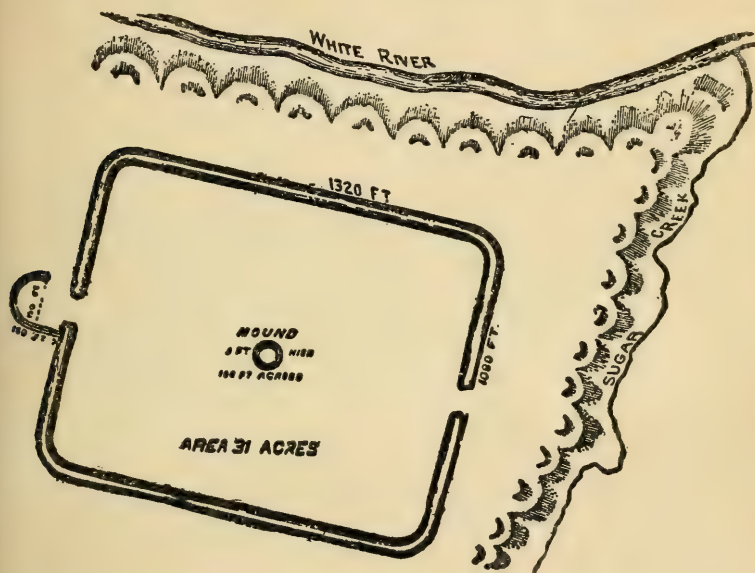


PREHISTORIC WORKS IN MADISON COUNTY.

which were employed. It must be remembered that the builders had no tools except rude stone spades, never more than three inches wide, and that they possessed no beasts of burden, or vessels in which to carry the earth, except small willow baskets. If the canal was filled with water for an additional protection to the garrison, the water had to be carried, in small earthen jars, up a steep bluff seventy-five feet high. In nearly every case where a canal is found it is on the inside of the structure, and not on the outside, as in more modern times.

There is still another of their works worthy of attention.

Near Winchester, in Randolph County, are the remains of a unique and beautiful walled enclosure. It is not only the largest in the State, but it is the most scientifically laid out. It encloses an area of about thirty acres. In shape it is a parallelogram with curved angles. The sides have a



PREHISTORIC WORKS IN RANDOLPH COUNTY.

length of 1350 feet and the ends 1200 feet. There is an entrance at each end. That on the north was defended by a half-circle outwork which overlapped the gateway. The walls, in some places, are still well preserved and are about nine feet high.

But few data have been left from which to determine the habits or mode of life of this prehistoric people. It is evident they were not dwellers in cities. At least no ruins have been found of any structures such as have been discovered in Mexico and Central America. They were not nomadic herdsmen like the patriarchs of old, for no remains of cattle or other domestic animals have been found, yet there are reasons for believing their habits to have been in a degree nomadic, and that they moved about like

the Arabs of the Desert. They knew something of agriculture, and, no doubt, cultivated maize to a considerable extent. The remains of extensive garden beds have been found. In Northern Indiana occur a series of ancient earthworks, showing that at one time they were used as garden beds. These works are of various forms and cover from ten to one hundred acres each. An effort has been made to connect the Mound Builders with the Jewish race, and the division of their garden beds has been cited as an evidence of this connection. When the children of Israel took possession of the land of Canaan the land was not only divided among the different tribes, but was subdivided among the various families. It has been suggested that the division of the garden beds shows that each family had a separate piece for cultivation. This, of course, is mere guess work, and a guess without any foundation. They must have been an agricultural people, at least to a very large extent, for none other could have subsisted the thousands who must have been employed in building the vast mounds and other works. A race wholly depending for food upon hunting and fishing, could never have subsisted so great a number employed in other pursuits.

Their method of tilling the soil must necessarily have been of the most primitive character, for their implements were very crude. Those that have been discovered were chipped out of chert or quartzite. These implements, rude as they are, show considerable skill in their construction. As they possessed no domestic animals, all the work of tilling the soil had to be done by hand, necessarily entailing great labor. No doubt the forests abounded in game and the lakes and rivers in fish; many implements of the chase have been discovered. The immense shell heaps that have been found in some localities disclose the fact that the rivers and lakes furnished much of their food. As they were compelled to rely upon the chase and a limited cultivation of the soil for the means of sustaining life, they were precluded from gathering together in large bodies, although there are many evidences that the State at one time was quite densely populated, and it is more than probable they wandered about as their fancy moved them, the forests furnishing shelter, fuel and game, while the lakes and

rivers yielded an abundance of fish, and furnished an easy means of transportation. One of the strongest evidences of their migratory character is to be found in the fact that they had no general burying places. The burial mounds that have been examined show that they were erected over individuals. This is true of all except those at Vincennes and Spencer, which have been referred to.

These people possessed a degree of civilization, but it was not of a high order. It fell far short of what some writers in their enthusiasm would make it. They clothed themselves with a cloth spun with a uniform thread and woven with a warp and woof. The material used bears a close resemblance to the hemp of the present day. Several specimens of this cloth have been unearthed and are now preserved. A shuttle has also been found that bears evident marks of long use. While the cloth was of a coarse character, it was often highly ornamented. They understood how to make implements and tools. Of these, some were stone, some copper and a very few iron. The copper was obtained from the Lake Superior region. The ancient mines there have been discovered. It is also evident they had some knowledge of smelting copper.

They were to some extent a commercial people. It is evident they traded to Lake Superior for copper and to Georgia for mica, and although no roads or highways have been found, such as were left in Mexico and Peru, yet the intercourse between the far distant parts of Superior and Georgia was not infrequent. They were also advanced in the manufacture and adornment of vessels for domestic use. The number of bowls, vases, water jugs, pitchers, drinking cups, sepulchral urns, water coolers, etc., which have been unearthed, is very large, and some of them are curiously carved and ornamented, but on nothing has there been found a letter or symbol that would give a clew to their language. No hieroglyphics such as were used by the ancient Egyptians, no picture writing, such as Montezuma and his subjects used, have ever been discovered. All stories of stones with Hebrew letters or symbols of any kind, are silly attempts at fraud. Some of the finest specimens of pottery, pipes and carving that have been found anywhere, have been taken from the mounds of Indiana.

A great deal has been written about the art of the Mound Builders, and they have been held up as miracles in carving, all of which is the merest trifling. The high place in science and art attained by the ancient Egyptians, and the glamour thrown over the civilization of the Toltecs of Mexico by the old Spanish writers, have led us to rank the civilization of all prehistoric races too high. Especially is this the case with the Mound Builders. A great deal of romancing on this subject has been done by various persons who have written at one time or another of the Mound Builders and their work. It is as pleasant a thing to build theories as it is to dream dreams, and in many cases the one has nothing more substantial than the other. Many writers have seriously maintained that the rude carvings found in the mounds are remarkable resemblances of beasts and birds. Upon this supposed likeness the writers build up a theory as to the origin and migration of the race. The real fact is that many of the carved figures which have been claimed by writers to be "exact and perfect representations" of certain birds and beasts found in the old countries of the world, are nothing more than rude imitations of animals and birds indigenous to the Mississippi Valley.

Nothing has been discovered of their burial customs. It is true that quite a number of skeletons have been found, but their positions and condition give no clew to any settled or definite custom of disposing of the dead. The theory has been advanced that they were cremationists, and urns have been found which enthusiasts at once classed as burial urns. There is little or no foundation for the cremation theory. In some of the mounds flat stones covered with charcoal have been found. Beneath the stones, in a sort of vault, was a black mold which has been taken as the dust of the dead remaining after cremation. There is no stone in Indiana that would bear heat enough, applied in that way, to consume a body beneath it. It is doubtful if heat enough could be so applied if the stone would bear it. The presence of the mold can be accounted for in a dozen ways that are far more reasonable.

It has been held that in religion they were worshipers of the Sun, and that they offered human sacrifices. The

fact that all the mounds look to the east is about the only thing upon which the theory of Sun worship is hinged, and that proves very little. Practically there are no evidences whatever that they offered human sacrifices.

Were they a warlike race? That is a question hard to determine. The remains of their fortifications, except in a few instances, are of low earthworks, not over four or five feet high. It is evident they were a race of slaves, and such a race is seldom warlike. The burial mounds seldom contain more than two or three skeletons, and the positions in which they were placed give evidence that one was the superior and the others the inferiors. The crania prove the same fact. With many of the ancient races it was customary to bury one or more slaves with a dead ruler, or master, and this was likely the case with the Mound Builders.

To what age of the world are they to be assigned? How many centuries have rolled away since they disappeared? These are perplexing questions. It is a strange thought that far back in the dim past, perhaps as far back as the days of the Pharaohs, there existed in what we delight to call the "New World," a people numbering millions, who have died and left no trace of their history. Even the Moabites left their stones covered with strange symbols, but the Mound Builders have left nothing of the kind. On some of the mounds trees of more than a thousand years growth are standing. Their monuments, as seen in their architecture, sculpture, earthworks, shell-banks, etc., furnish evidence, from their extent and numbers, of very high antiquity. The most ancient remains of man found on the earth are distinguished by the flattening of the tibia, and this peculiarity is found in an exaggerated degree in those of the Mound Builders. A distinguished writer on this subject says: "From the ruins of Nineveh and Babylon, we have bones at least two thousand five hundred years old; from the pyramids and catacombs of Egypt, both mummied and unmummied crania have been taken of still higher antiquity, in perfect preservation; nevertheless, the skeletons deposited in our mounds from the Lakes to the Gulf, are crumbling into dust through age alone." The peculiar anatomical construction of the few remaining crania not only proves the Mound Builders to have been very ancient,

but that they were wholly unlike any other race known to have existed. A critical examination of the remains of this ancient race of America, and a comparison with those of all the other races of the world, tend to throw a doubt over the theory that all mankind descended from one common father.

We know something of the origin of other races. We can account for the origin of all the races of Europe, Asia and Africa, but no one has yet been able to tell whence sprang the American Mound Builders, nor to present even a plausible theory on that much disputed point. We examine the relics they have left behind; we study their rude carvings; we measure the crania of their dead, and then we put this and that together, and build up a theory as to their origin and proper place in history. But all we can do is to theorize. That the Mound Builders antedated by many years, perhaps centuries, the Toltecs of Mexico, can hardly be doubted, and the history of the Toltecs can be traced back nine centuries before the Christian era. The ancient records of the Toltecs repeatedly speak of a great empire to the northwest of them, and these same records declare that the Toltecs migrated from that empire to Mexico, and it is supposed this migration took place a thousand years before Christ. Whether the Toltecs were descendants of the Mound Builders, and became civilized after their migration to Mexico, is yet an unsettled question. If the great empire referred to by the Toltecs was that of the Mound Builders, it becomes evident at once that the origin of the Mound Builders, and the time of their first occupation of the American soil, must necessarily have been thousands of years ago. It is beyond all question that they disappeared more than a thousand years ago. Were they driven out by the Indians? If so, what a vast amount of sympathy we have wasted on the Red Men, for the Whites have only taken from them what they themselves had taken by violence before. Had the Mound Builders come into America by the way of Bering Straits, as has been claimed, or in any other way, it is apparent that some of the remains of the race from which they sprang would have been found in some of the old countries.

The thought of the countless years they must have

lived upon this soil fairly staggers us. When their mounds were piled up and their fortifications erected, Babylon was yet in the womb of Time. The mounds were hoary with the frost of centuries before Romulus and Remus traced the foundations of the Eternal City. Their builders had been moldering in the dust for half a thousand years when Alexander swam the Hellespont. The more one studies the works of this ancient people, the more he is lost in wonder that a race so numerous and powerful could so completely have passed away that even the period of their existence is the merest conjecture. It is as if they had existed before the flood and the mighty storm which Noah and his family alone were able to safely outride had swept them suddenly from the face of the earth, in the midst of their power and glory. It is hard to believe that they were utterly annihilated by another race. If so, whence came that other race, in numbers and power great enough to work such mighty devastation? What a vast period of time separates us from the Mound Builders! What great strides the world has taken since they disappeared! From the stone age to the age of steel, what wonders have intervened! Truly, the Old World has passed away and all things have become new. There is a chasm of time, of history, between the two that man has not been able to bridge. The period of their existence is a blank leaf in the history of the world, that has not been written over. The Grave Creek Relic, the Cincinnati Tablet, the Davenport Stones, even if genuine, furnish no data. They were a race without a written language of any kind.

Modern civilization, with all its knowledge and wisdom, stands at the edge of the abyss of time which separates the present from the past, when this buried race lived and flourished, and can only speculate as to its origin, its life, history and fate. We stand upon the mounds erected by them, and wander around their fortifications; we gaze upon the implements of warfare left behind them, dropped, perhaps, by the warrior when stricken by death, and never touched by man again until picked up by the curious seeker after relics in these happy times of ours; we look at the skeletons as they are unearthed, we speculate and theorize,

and we are forced to admit that of their time, manners and customs, origin and fate, the mystery is still impenetrable.

It is unfortunate that the State has not made some effort to secure the title and preserve some of the most important of the prehistoric works. The beautiful earth-work in Randolph County is now almost entirely destroyed, but the "Old Stone Fort," in Clark County, and the two groups in Madison County are yet in a good state of preservation. Near the works in Madison County are several fine chalybeate springs, and they would make that section a pleasant resort if the State would purchase the ground and create a park. The Fort in Clark County is worth a visit, and if owned by the State would soon become a resort for pupils in the schools.

CHAPTER II.

INDIAN RACES.

When the first Europeans landed on the American continent they found here a peculiar people; a people so peculiar, in fact, that in moral and physical characteristics they were totally unlike any other known race. They also found a country abounding in plants and animals never known in any other country. The language, even, of the inhabitants found on this continent was entirely different and distinct from all the known languages of the world. It is said, however, that in the mountains of Japan, may be found the remnants of the aborigines of that kingdom, and that they bear a close resemblance in features, manners and customs to the Red Men of America. The inhabitants of America had marked peculiarities of features; high cheek bones, long, straight black hair, of special coarseness, a red complexion, and black eyes. Their habits were peculiar as well as their physical constitution. They lived by hunting and fishing, with a very limited cultivation of the soil. They were fierce, vindictive, remarkably indifferent, stoical, grave in demeanor, and, more than all, treacherous and cowardly. They would fight, but never in the open field, or on equal terms, if they could avoid it. They preferred cunning to open, brave warfare.

They had no government of any kind, except a sort of tribal relation. Their temperament was rather poetic and imaginative, and they delighted in striking figures of speech. The men hunted, fished, and fought, while the women did all the work. This did not arise so much from laziness as from a notion of pride, that the man must be a

warrior, and that work of any kind was beneath the dignity of one whose calling was to battle. They roamed the woods, and had no abiding place for any length of time. The tribes were continually at war with each other, and in all dealings with their enemies they were peculiarly cruel. They never took prisoners in battle except to put them to the torture. Once in awhile a victim was saved from the torture by being adopted into the tribe by some member who had recently lost a son, or a husband. They were haughty and taciturn. Their symbol of peace was a pipe. Their implements of war were arrows and stone hatchets; those of husbandry were stone spades, or a sort of plow made of bone.

They were peculiarly indifferent to all things. They placed no great value upon anything, and upon life least of all. They were apparently without human affections. Unlike almost every other race they were wholly without love or affection for their homes, or kindred. They looked upon everything as below them, and were given to boasting in an eminent degree. They had a stoicism that was absolutely wonderful. They withstood heat or cold with like indifference. In times of plenty they gorged, and in times of scarcity they starved, with the same indifference. They endured torture with a sort of ferocious glee. They delighted in inventing new methods of torture to increase the sufferings of their enemies, and nothing could so readily gain their favor or extort their admiration as to bear the most intense suffering without a tremor. It was this capacity to suffer that earned them their title to bravery, but it was not courage, only a stoical indifference.

Their dress was of the scantiest kind, the men being almost naked and the women wearing a short petticoat made of wild hemp. When preparing for war the men adorned themselves with feathers and painted their faces in hideous colors. Their method of warfare consisted almost wholly in surprises, and they possessed peculiar powers of hiding their trail when on the war path, or in discovering that of their enemies. They lurked in ambush, and would often lie hidden away for days without food or water, waiting for an opportunity to surprise and slay some member of another tribe. Another marked peculiarity was to always carry off

their own dead, not for the purpose of sepulture, but to conceal their loss from the enemy.

They had no religion, but believed in one God, the Great Spirit, by whom all things were made. They also believed in a future state, a complete resurrection, but they had no distinctive religious ceremonies. They had traditions of the origin of man and of the flood. They had no written language, or sign writing. There were hundreds of tribes of these aborigines, but the language of no two was wholly the same, although bearing some resemblance. Having no written language they, of course, had no history, not even by tradition or legend. They did, or at least some of the tribes did, have traditions of their own tribal origin, but they were so vague that nothing could be gathered from them.

Many writers have tried to solve the problem of their origin, but none have yet found a satisfactory answer. Had the European visited this continent a century before he did he would not have found any of these aborigines on the Atlantic coast. The weight of tradition, backed by all the circumstances that are known, is to the effect that the first place on the American continent occupied by them, was in the extreme northwest. As other tribes crossed from the old world they drove those who had been earlier in coming, toward the east and south. They were thus pushed eastward from period to period just as the white man has again pushed them westward. Many writers have tried to connect them with the Hebrew race, setting up that they were the descendants of the ten lost tribes, so-called. The following points of resemblance have been pointed out:

- 1.—Their division into tribes.
- 2.—Their worship of one great spirit.
- 3.—Their belief in ministering angels.
- 4.—Their orders of prophets and high priests.
- 5.—Their manner of counting time.
- 6.—Their festivals, fasts, and other religious rites.
- 7.—Their laws of uncleanness.
- 8.—Their ablutions and anointments.
- 9.—Their customs relative to marriage, divorce and adultery.

10.—Their purifications and ceremonies before going to war.

11.—Their manner of curing the sick.

12.—Their ceremonies at the burial of their dead.

13.—Their mourning for their dead.

14.—Their choice of names adapted to circumstances and times.

15.—Their patriarchal form of government.

16.—Their belief in a future state of existence.

17.—Their belief in witchcraft.

These resemblances are all very slight, with the exception of their belief in one God, and in a future existence. Did they drive out or destroy the Mound Builders? If so, they possessed no tradition of the fact, and it is hardly possible that a race so given to boasting would have neglected to hand down by tradition such an important event. The probabilities are that the Mound Builders had ceased to be inhabitants of America ages before the advent of the Indians. It is almost certain they were not the descendants of the Mound Builders, for they had none of the manners or customs of that race. They never erected mounds or fortifications, and there is a very marked difference between the crania of the Indians and of the Mound Builders.

At the beginning of the seventeenth century, the Algonquin family of Indians occupied a vast region of territory in North America. They occupied all that territory from 37 degrees to 53 degrees north latitude, and from the Atlantic to the Mississippi River. Their territory was bounded on the northeast by the Esquimaux, on the northwest by the Athabaskan tribes, on the west by the Dacotahs and on the south by the Cherokees, and Natchez Indians. This family was made up of numerous tribes, resembling each other in manners, customs and dialects. Within this same territory dwelt some other tribes, differing essentially from the Algonquins. The Algonquins were the hereditary enemies of the Iroquois. Nearly all the tribes found in Indiana were of the Algonquin family.

When the first white man invaded the soil of Indiana he found here several tribes, sometimes living at peace with each other, but more often at war. Indiana was then the seat of the great Miami Confederacy. This Confederacy

had been organized against that of the Iroquois, or Five Nations. When the Iroquois reached the Atlantic and found that they could go no farther east, and felt the western tribes still pushing them, they formed a Confederacy of five of the largest tribes, for the purpose of protecting themselves and driving back toward the setting sun those who were following in their wake toward the east. Individual tribes had sought to gain a foothold on the eastern side of the mountains, but had been repulsed by the Iroquois Confederation, and they, too, in turn made a union.

Among the principal tribes which formed the Miami Confederacy, in Indiana, were the Twightwees, Weas, Piankashaws, and Shockneys. They had fought many and bloody battles with the Iroquois, and had been worsted in the contest, and had been greatly reduced in numbers by the time the white man first invaded their territory. They dwelt in small villages along the various water courses, from the lakes to the Ohio River. The Piankashaws occupied the territory east of the Wabash, and north of the Ohio, as far east as Lawrence County, and as far north as Vigo. The Wyandots had a little section comprising what is now Harrison, Crawford, Spencer, Perry, Dubois and Orange Counties; the Shawnees occupied the land east of the Wyandots into the present State of Ohio, and as far north as Rush and Fayette Counties; the Weas had their possessions along the Wabash with their principal villages near where Lafayette now stands; the Twightwees were principally located along the St. Joseph and St. Mary Rivers; the Pottawattamies held the whole northern part of the State, and the Delawares the central eastern part. One branch of the Shawnees had villages in the country to the south and east of that occupied by the Weas.

The Delawares, the Wyandots, the Shawnees and Pottawattamies were the strongest of these tribes. The Delawares, according to a tradition of their tribe, at one time possessed the entire western portion of the continent. They frequently called themselves the "Lenni Lenape." They traveled eastward until they reached the Mississippi River where they met the war-like Iroquois, with whom they formed a league against the other tribes. The combination of these two warlike tribes enabled them to conquer all the

smaller tribes who were then east of the Mississippi, and they at once laid claim to all the territory from the Great River to the Atlantic ocean. A division of this territory was made between the two tribes, the Delawares taking all that from the Potomac River on the south to the Hudson on the north. They subsequently became divided into smaller tribes, which resulted finally in their overthrow and almost complete destruction. It was from the Delawares William Penn purchased Pennsylvania.

They quarreled with the Iroquois or Five Nations, and were subjugated by them. They were driven westward across the Alleghany Mountains and finally made their principal home in what is now the State of Ohio, about the year 1768, almost one hundred and twenty-five years after their subjugation by the Iroquois. During the Revolutionary War they operated with the British against the Americans, and made many a desperate and bloody foray on the frontier settlements. They took part in the great battle wherein St. Clair was so disastrously defeated. In 1795 the United States got possession of their lands on the Muskingum, and they removed into Indiana, where they remained until 1819, when they removed west of the Mississippi. All of them, however, did not follow the main tribe, but some remained for a long time in the east, hovering around Pittsburg. The Wolf tribe was one of these branches, and was the one which captured and burned to death Colonel Crawford.

The Wyandots had a varied experience. They were a fragmentary branch of the Tobacco nation of Hurons. Like the Delawares they were the victims of the Iroquois. They originally had their home around Michillimackinac and were driven from there to the islands at the mouth of Green Bay. They were not permitted to rest there and finally fled southward to the country of the Illinois, and thence westward to the Mississippi, where they met the bloody Sioux. The Sioux drove them backward over the very track they had come, and they finally made a settlement in southern Michigan, a part of them going into Ohio, where they wielded a great influence over the neighboring tribes. The Wyandots joined Pontiac in his war.

When the French first landed at Quebec and Montreal,

in 1535, the Hurons occupied the northern side of the St. Lawrence westward to Lake Huron. The Senecas occupied the southern side of the St. Lawrence, and long and bloody wars raged between the two nations. The Hurons left the St. Lawrence and removed westward, being pursued by the Senecas, who were finally almost destroyed by the Hurons. From their settlement in Ohio a small branch penetrated into southern Indiana.

The Shawnees were the fiercest of all the tribes that occupied any of the land now in the State of Indiana. They were originally from Georgia, whence they were driven into Kentucky, finally settling near Chillicothe, Ohio, but some of them going to near Pittsburg, Pennsylvania. They were incessantly at war. Tecumseh and his brother the Prophet were of this tribe. The Shawnees were always the enemies of the Americans, and of the British when they controlled this country. They were among the most active of the Indian allies of the French during the seven years war, and after the conquest of Canada they continued hostilities for a long time. They were the most determined enemies of the American settlements west of the Alleghany Mountains and were continually making fierce inroads into Kentucky. They took an active part against America both during the War of Independence and the Indian war which followed. By the treaty at Greenville in 1795 they lost nearly all their territory in Ohio, and most of them removed to Indiana. A part of them followed Tecumseh when he joined the British standard during the War of 1812, and took part in the battle of the Thames, where Tecumseh was killed. They finally sold their lands in Indiana to the Government and removed west of the Mississippi.

The Pottawattamies were at one time a very powerful and war-like tribe. When any of the tribes made war on the Americans the Pottawattamies were sure to be found taking up the tomahawk. They united with the French as against the British; with other tribes, to fight the British, and with the British as against the Americans. They were at Harmar's defeat, at the overthrow of St. Clair, and were among the fiercest of those who fought Mad Anthony Wayne. Some of them took part in the defeat of Colonel Crawford and danced around his burning body. They

joined Pontiac in his conspiracy, and Black Hawk, when he opened up the last Indian war east of the Mississippi. They were always among the first to make peace with the whites, and also among the first to take up the tomahawk again. Some of them fought at Tippecanoe and some at the battle of the Thames. They were finally moved west of the Mississippi. They claimed all northern Indiana, and southern Michigan. A few of the tribe still linger in Michigan.

The Miamis were the most powerful tribe in the West. They had been gradually migrating toward the east, when they met and had to battle with the Iroquois, who were just then being driven westward by the advancing Europeans. They settled in what is now the State of Ohio, and as this was the natural highway to the Mississippi Valley from the east, the Iroquois made many determined efforts to drive them away. The wars between the two nations were frequent and bloody, and as the Iroquois were the first to receive arms from the white man, they usually had the best of it. Little Turtle, one of the chiefs of the Miamis, thus described the claims of the tribe: "My forefather kindled the first fire at Detroit; thence he extended his lines to the headwaters of the Scioto; thence to the mouth; thence down the Ohio River to the mouth of the Wabash; and from there to Chicago over Lake Michigan. These are the boundaries within which the prints of my ancestors' houses are everywhere seen." When the French first entered Indiana they found the Miamis in complete control. They received the newcomers with great cordiality, and gave them land at Vincennes and at Ouiatenon, and afterward gave to General George Rogers Clark 150,000 acres at the Falls of the Ohio. Some of the members of the tribe engaged in most of the wars against the whites, but as a confederation they were generally well disposed to the French. The Miamis had a varied migratory experience. They were among the finest of all the races of Indians, and proudly called themselves "Men." In fact, that was their real name. They were "men," warriors, statesmen, men above all the other tribes. They were met everywhere in the West; around Superior, the upper Mississippi, and in Ohio and Indiana. They were heroic, war-like. They had long and bloody contests with the Sioux and Sacs and

Foxes, until only the Miamis and Weas were left. The rest had been scattered. In 1669 they were mostly found around Green Bay, Wisconsin. From there most of them soon moved to Chicago, and then to the St. Joseph of the Lake, and then to the head of the Maumee, and there their principal villages were located. In 1680 the Iroquois declared war against the Illinois, who had been the friends and allies of the Miamis, and the wily Iroquois for awhile disarmed the suspicions of the Miamis. In 1682 war again was declared. By this time La Salle was a leading spirit among the Indians of this part of the country, and by his influence the Miamis, Shawnees, Weas, Illinois and Piankashaws were gathered around his fort on the Illinois River. The Iroquois vainly endeavored to overthrow this formidable confederation. By this effort of La Salle all the Indians were drawn away from Indiana, and the Miamis did not return until 1712.

Around the Maumee and the Wabash they thereafter lived until finally they yielded their lands to the whites. A few of their descendants still remain in Indiana. The Miamis were not as lazy as most of the tribes, and raised corn, small fruits and vegetables. They had one peculiar feature. Some civilized nations have had their public executioners, whose duty it was to execute all criminals, and this office was a sort of hereditary one. So it was with the Miamis. They frequently condemned their captives to be eaten, and this eating was all done by one family, trained for that purpose, and the office remained in the same family generation after generation. The eating was always done in public, and was surrounded by certain religious rites and ceremonies. The last victim known to have been killed and eaten was a young Kentuckian who was thus disposed of at the Miami village near the present site of Fort Wayne. The best description of this fearful deed is found in a speech delivered by General Lewis Cass, July 4, 1843, at Fort Wayne, on the opening of the Wabash and Erie canal. He said:

“For many years during the frontier history of this place and region, the line of your canal was a bloody war path, which has seen many a deed of horror. And this peaceful town has had its Moloch, and the records of hu-

man depravity furnish no more terrible examples of cruelty than were offered at his shrine. The Miami Indians, our predecessors in the occupation of this district, had a terrible institution, whose origin and object have been lost in the darkness of aboriginal history, but which was continued to a late period, and whose orgies were held upon the very spot where we now are. It was called the man eating society, and it was the duty of its associates to eat such prisoners as were preserved and delivered to them for that purpose. The members of this society belonged to a particular family, and the dreadful inheritance descended to all the children, male and female. The duties it imposed could not be avoided, and the sanctions of religion were added to the obligations of immemorial usage. The feast was a solemn ceremony, at which the whole tribe was collected as actors or spectators. The miserable victim was bound to a stake, and burned at a slow fire, with all the refinements of cruelty which savage ingenuity could invent. There was a traditionary ritual, which regulated with revolting precision the whole course of procedure at those ceremonies. Latterly the authority and obligations of the institution had declined, and I presume it has now wholly disappeared. But I have seen and conversed with the head of the family, the chief of the society, whose name was White-Skin—with what feeling of disgust I need not attempt to describe. I well knew an intelligent Canadian, who was present at one of the last sacrifices made at this horrible institution. The victim was a young American captured in Kentucky near the close of the Revolutionary War. Here, where we are now assembled, in peace and security, celebrating the triumph of art and industry, within the memory of the present generation our countrymen have been thus tortured, murdered and devoured. But, thank God, the council fire is extinguished. The impious feast is over, the war dance is ended; the war song is unsung; the war drum is silent, and the Indian has departed.”

The Miamis were at first greatly attached to the French. In 1748, however, they made a treaty with the British, but they never forgot their old friends and allies. The Miamis produced one of the most remarkable chiefs and warriors known in American aboriginal history, if not the most re-

markable. Me-che-can-noch-quā, or Little Turtle, was a warrior who could well take rank with the greatest of civilized nations. He was a man of extraordinary courage, sagacity and talents, and with a physical frame which equaled his courage. There was a great dignity in his bearing, which impressed whites and Indians alike. He reached the head of his nation at an early age, and from that time until his death exercised an influence over his tribe never equaled by any other of its great chiefs. He it was who met and defeated the forces of General Harmar. His two battles with the troops of that commander revealed his powers as a General. He commanded the allied forces of Indians who administered to St. Clair such a terrible punishment, thereby setting the continent in a blaze. He also fought General Anthony Wayne, and came near defeating that great soldier. After the treaty at Greenville, Little Turtle visited Philadelphia, where he met and was entertained by Volney and Kosciusko. While there his portrait was painted by one of the most distinguished artists of the time. He was also presented a sword by President Washington. He made two other visits to the East, one in 1801 and the last in 1807. He was everywhere received with the greatest consideration. He had warred against the Americans, but when peace was made he accepted it as final, and ever afterward remained a steadfast friend of the whites. He opposed the attempt of Tecumseh to form a confederacy against the Americans. He died in 1812 and was buried with great honors at Fort Wayne.

The last two chiefs of the Miamis died and were buried near Peru, in Miami County, Indiana. The last great war chief was Pa-lonz-wa, or Francis Godfroy, as he was better known among the whites. Pa-lonz-wa was a man of daring courage, of magnificent physique and immense size. He was the son of a Frenchman, and, next to Little Turtle, was the most noted chief the Miamis ever had. During nearly all the time of his chieftainship he was a firm friend of the whites. As early as 1822 he employed some workmen from Fort Wayne to build for him, on the banks of the Wabash, a large house, after the manner and style of the white man of wealth. In this house he dispensed the most generous hospitality, and Indian and white man

alike were welcome to his board. When his tribe made the final treaty with the Government and ceded possession of their lands in Indiana, four sections, on the Mississinnewa, were reserved for Pa-lonz-wa. On this reservation he erected a trading post, and became, for those days, a noted merchant. Reckless and careless of money, and having more land than he knew what to do with, he scattered his favors with a prodigal hand. It was told of him that being at Lafayette, on one occasion, when a steamboat arrived at that point from the Ohio River, he offered the captain a half section of land if he would convey him and his party to their homes, some three miles above where Peru now stands. The offer was accepted and the trip up the Wabash was made, but on the return to Lafayette the steamer was lost. Pa-lonz-wa made the deed to the promised half-section.

He died in 1840, and was buried on a high knoll which overlooks the Wabash. On his grave a marble shaft has been erected, bearing on one side his white name, and the date of his birth and death. On the other is the following tribute to his memory: "Late Principal Chief of the Miami Nation of Indians. Distinguished for courage, humanity, benevolence and honor, he lived in his native forests an illustration of the nobleness of his race, enjoying the confidence of his tribe and beloved by his American neighbors. He died as he lived, 'without fear or reproach.'" His funeral was one of the noted events of that day, and was attended by hundreds of Indians and whites. The principal address was delivered by Wa-pa-pin-sha, a noted Indian orator of his tribe. Translated, it is as follows:

"Brothers, the Great Spirit has taken to Himself another of our once powerful and happy, but now declining nation. The time has been when these forests were densely populated by the Red Men, but the same hand whose blighting touch withered the majestic frame before us, and caused the noble spirit by which it was animated to seek another home, has dealt in a like manner with his and our fathers; in like manner will He deal with us. Death of late has been common among us, so much so that a recurrence of it scarcely elicits our notice. But when the brave, the generous, the patriotic are blasted by it, then it

is the tears of sorrow flow. Such is now the case. Our brother who has just left us was brave, generous and patriotic, and as a tribute to his merit, and a reward for his goodness, the tears, not only of his own people, but of many white men, who are here assembled to witness his funeral rites, freely flow.

“At this scene, the poor of his people weep, because at his table they were wont to feast and rejoice. The weak mourn his death because his authority was ever directed for their protection. But he has left the earth—the place of vexation and contention—and is now participating with Pocahontas and Logan in those joys prepared by the Great Spirit for such as well and faithfully discharge their duties here. Brothers, let us emulate his example and practice his virtues.”

Pa-lonz-wa was followed in the chieftainship of his tribe by John Baptiste Big Leg, who was the last chief of the Miamis. He lies buried by the side of Pa-lonz-wa, and a plain marble slab marks the spot where his bones lie. It bears the following inscription: “Head Chief of the Miami and Kansas Tribe. A brave warrior, a generous man, and a good Christian.” Some of Godfroy’s descendants yet live on the Mississinnewa.

The Indians were exceedingly fond of intoxicating liquors, and would travel any distance, undergo any hardships, and barter away any of their possessions to obtain it. In his first message to the General Assembly of Indiana Territory, in July, 1805, Governor Harrison said:

“The interests of your constituents, the interests of the miserable Indians, and your own feelings, will sufficiently urge you to take it into your most serious consideration, and provide the remedy which is to save thousands of our fellow creatures. You are witnesses to the abuses; you have seen our towns crowded with furious and drunken savages; our streets flowing with their blood; their arms and clothing bartered for the liquor that destroys them; and their women and children enduring all the extremities of cold and hunger. So destructive has the progress of intemperance been among them that whole villages have been swept away. A miserable remnant is all that remains to mark the names and situation of many numerous

and warlike tribes. In the energetic language of one of their orators, it is a dreadful conflagration, which spreads misery and desolation through the country and threatens the annihilation of the whole race."

Even in the early days it was a question with the whites how to destroy or get rid of the Indians. The United States Indian Agent, at Fort Wayne, in 1815, struck a new and highly original way of solving the problem. In a letter to the then Secretary of War, William H. Crawford, he said:

"It is much cheaper reducing them [the Indians] by meat and bread than by the force of arms; and from the observations I have had the opportunity of making, that three or four months of feeding on meat and bread, even without ardent spirits, will bring on disease, and, in six or eight months, great mortality. And would it be considered a proper warfare? I believe more Indians might be killed with the expense of one hundred thousand dollars in this way than one million dollars expended in the support of armies to go against them." This was a new and unique application of the command: "If thine enemy hunger, give him meat, and if he thirst, give him drink."

In 1765, just after the territory northwest of the Ohio River was ceded to the British, by France, Colonel George Croghan, an Indian agent of the Province of Pennsylvania visited the various tribes, and made the following statement in reference to the tribes then found occupying the territory:

"Twightwees [Miamis], two hundred and fifty fighting men, reside on the Miami [Maumee] River, near Fort Miamis; hunting ground where they reside.

"Wayoughtanies, three hundred fighting men; Pyanke-shas, three hundred fighting men; Shockays, two hundred fighting men; reside on the branches of the Ouabache, near Fort Ouiatenon; hunting grounds between Ouiatenon and the Miamis.

"Huskhuskeys, three hundred fighting men; Illinois, three hundred fighting men; reside near the French settlements in the Illinois country; hunting grounds about Lake Erie.

"Wayandotts, two hundred and fifty fighting men; Otta-

was, four hundred fighting men; Putawatimes, one hundred and fifty fighting men; reside near Fort Detroit.

"Chippewas, two hundred fighting men; Ottawas, two hundred fighting men; reside on Saganna creek, which empties into Lake Huron; hunting grounds thereabouts.

"Chippewas, four hundred fighting men; Ottawas, two hundred and sixty fighting men; reside near Michillimackinac; hunting grounds on the north side of Lake Huron.

"Chippewas, four hundred fighting men; reside near the entrance of Lake Superior, and not far from St. Mary's.

"Chippewas, Mynonamies, Shockays, five hundred and fifty fighting men; reside near Fort Labay, on Lake Michigan; hunting grounds thereabouts.

"Putawatimes, one hundred and fifty fighting men; Ottawas, one hundred and fifty fighting men; reside near St. Joseph's; hunting grounds thereabouts.

"Kickapoos, Outtagamies, Musquatans, Miscotins, Outtamacks, Musquakeys; in all four thousand fighting men; reside on Lake Michigan, and between it and the Mississippi; hunting grounds where they reside."

In the many forays made by the Indians during the struggle between France and Great Britain for supremacy in America, and in the sudden outbreak of the Indians under the leadership of Pontiac, many settlers were slain, and hundreds of prisoners taken and carried away into captivity. Most of these prisoners were women and children, and years elapsed after their capture before their fate was known. The expedition of Colonel Bouquet, against the settlements of the Shawnees and other hostile tribes, brought about the release of more than two hundred of these captives. Colonel Robert S. Robertson, in his History of the Upper Maumee Valley, thus graphically describes the scene which followed:

"Among the many prisoners brought into the camp, husbands found their wives, and parents their children, from whom they had been separated for many years. Women, frantic between hope and fear, were running hither and thither, looking piercingly into the face of every child. Some of the little captives shrank from their forgotten mothers, and hid in terror in the blankets of the squaws that had adopted them. Some that had been taken away

young, had grown up and married Indian husbands or Indian wives, now stood utterly bewildered with conflicting emotions. A young Virginian had found his wife; but his little boy, not two years old when captured, had been torn from her, and had been carried off, no one knew where. One day a warrior came in leading a child. At first no one seemed to own it. But soon the mother knew her offspring, and screaming with joy, folded her son to her bosom. An old woman had lost her grand-daughter in the French war nine years before. All her other relatives had died under the knife. Searching with trembling eagerness, in each face, she at last recognized the altered features of her child. But the girl had forgotten her native tongue, and returned no answer, and made no sign. The old woman groaned and complained bitterly, that the daughter she had so often sung to sleep on her knee, had forgotten her in her old age. Soldiers and officers were alike overcome. 'Sing,' said Bouquet, to the old lady, 'sing the song you used to sing.' As the low trembling tones began to ascend, the wild girl seemed startled, then listening for a moment longer, she burst into a flood of tears. She was indeed the lost child, but all else had been effaced from her memory, save the recollection of that sweet cradle song. The tender sensibilities were foreign, as a general rule, to the Indian heart; indeed, they held such emotions in contempt; but when the song of the old lady was seen by them to touch the captive's heart and bring her again to a mother's arms, they were overcome with sympathy. Many captive women who returned with their friends to the settlements soon afterward made their escape, and wandered back to their Indian husbands, so great was the change that had taken place in their natures."

One of the strangest and most remarkable discoveries and recognition of a captive was that of Frances Slocum. In 1777 Wilkesbarre, Pennsylvania, was a straggling settlement made up of the cabins of half a dozen or more Quaker families. Among them was one family by the name of Slocum, consisting of father and mother, and four or five small children, one of whom was Frances, who was then some six or seven years of age. One evening, in the summer of 1777, while Frances and two or three of her playmates were

amusing themselves in front of the cabin, and on the edge of the forest, several Indians suddenly sprang upon them, killed one and carried Frances and another girl away into captivity. A sister and brother of Frances escaped and gave the alarm, but nothing could be heard of the captives. The years rolled around, one after another, and the father and mother of Frances went down to their graves mourning the unknown fate of their little one. The brothers and sisters grew up, and became aged and gray-haired men and women, and still no tidings were received, until three score years had slipped away into the past. Sixty years after the capture the first tidings reached the aged relatives.

In 1834-5 George W. Ewing was the United States agent among the Miami Indians, then claiming nearly all the northern half of Indiana. When visiting the Indian village on the banks of the Mississinnewa, not far from where the city of Peru now stands, he stopped at the cabin of Sha-pah-can-nah, the head chief of the tribe. There he met the aged wife of the chief. In her movements about the wigwam she exposed some parts of her body, and Mr. Ewing became satisfied that she was not an Indian, but in reality was white. He interrogated her in the Indian language, and she told him that she was white, and that she could remember that she had been stolen, when a little child, by some members of the Delaware tribe. She could not remember what her name was, nor where her home had been, but she believed her father's name was Slocum, and that he had lived somewhere on the banks of the Susquehanna. She also remembered that he was a Quaker, and that he was a short, heavy-set man. She had no recollection of any other members of the family, except that she had brothers and sisters. Her story was that she had been adopted into the tribe of the Delawares, and with them moved from place to place, until she became a grown woman. She had then married a Delaware chief who was shortly afterward killed in battle. After a few years of widowhood she had become the wife of Sha-pah-can-nah, who was her husband at the time of Mr. Ewing's visit. Her story was confirmed by her husband.

On his return to his home in Logansport, Mr. Ewing

committed the story as he had heard it to paper, and addressed the statement to the editor of "Any Newspaper in Lancaster, Pennsylvania," this being the only place of any importance he could remember on the Susquehanna, and requested its publication, in hopes that some of the family were still surviving, and might thus be led to a knowledge of the long lost. At that time no paper was published in Lancaster, and the letter remained in the postoffice uncalled for. About two years afterward John W. Forney went to Lancaster, and began the publication of a paper. After he had been there some time, the postmaster remembered the letter which had been lying on his shelf so long. He gave it to Mr. Forney, and it was printed. It was copied into many of the other papers of Pennsylvania, and finally, in 1837, came under the notice of Isaac Slocum, a man nearly four score years of age. He knew it was the story of his long lost sister Frances. The old man, together with the sister who had escaped when Frances was captured, crossed the mountains, and sought out the little Indian village on the Mississinnewa. He had written to Mr. Ewing and informed him of his expected visit. Mr. Ewing met him and accompanied him to the village. On his way Mr. Slocum told his new friend that if the white woman at the village was his sister Frances, she would have a scar upon one of the fingers of her left hand, made by him with a hammer, when they were children on the banks of the Susquehanna. The brother and sister met, but neither could recognize the other. But the scar was there, and upon being interrogated by Mr. Ewing as to what had caused it, she told the story as it had been related by her brother. Every effort was made to induce her to return to civilized life, but all in vain. She had lived with the Indians for sixty years, and could not give them up. She remained at the Indian village and died there a few years later.

Frequently several tribes would join together in a foray on the white settlements, and when prisoners were captured, they would be divided among the tribes. In 1790, John May, a Government surveyor, together with Charles Johnston, a Mr. Skyles, a Mr. Flinn, and two sisters by the name of Flemming, while descending the Ohio River, were captured by a raiding party of Miamis, Delawares and

Cherokees. One of the ladies was killed. The prisoners were distributed to the different bands. Flinn was taken to the villages of the Miamis, and there roasted to death and eaten. A Canadian trader, who was present, described the scene. Flinn was seized and tied to a stake. The trader tried to save him. He offered several kegs of rum as a ransom, but the Indians broke the heads of the kegs and poured out the rum. He then offered several hundred silver brooches, but they were rejected. The brush was piled up around the victim at the stake and fired. Not a groan escaped from the doomed man. He walked calmly around the stake for several hours, until his flesh was roasted and the fire burned down. An old squaw approached to rekindle it, but Flinn was not dead. He suddenly administered to her a kick that rendered her unconscious for some time. The Indians then bored his ankles, and passing thongs through the sinews, fastened them closely to the stake, so as to render him utterly helpless. His sufferings were continued for several hours, when he was at last dispatched by a tomahawk. His body was carved and eaten.

Skyles was conducted to one of the towns on the Maumee, and though he suffered terrible tortures he finally escaped with his life. While tied to a stake he was forced to submit to torture at the hands of the boys. One of them procured a thorn switch, and drove the largest thorn into the naked body of Skyles, and left it sticking there. He was kept at the village until he finally made his escape. He became lost in the woods and wandered around for several days, until almost starved; finally in his despair he entered an Indian village from which the warriors were temporarily absent. He had painted himself so as not to be recognized. He made himself known to a trader, who concealed him until an opportunity was offered for his escape. He finally reached Detroit. Johnston was ransomed by a French trader. Miss Flemming had fallen to the lot of the Cherokees in the division of spoils. She was taken also to the Miami villages. A white man who had been stolen from Pittsburg, while a boy, and had been raised among the Indians, interested himself in her behalf. She was in a terrible condition of emaciation, and had suffered almost

every hardship. The white man appealed to "Old King Crane," a Miami chief, who went to the Cherokee village and endeavored to secure her release. They refused to listen to him, and declared their intention to torture her. "Old King Crane" determined to rescue her at all hazards. He returned to his own village, collected his young warriors and before daylight was again at the Cherokee camp. He found the young woman entirely naked, and bound to a stake, around which the fuel had been prepared. Her body had been painted black. He caused her to be released and clothed, and then coolly informed the Cherokees that the squaw was his, and if they did not like it his young men were ready to try the issue. She was finally restored to her friends.

Page after page might be filled with similar accounts of the terrors that surrounded the early settlers, but enough has been given to keep the memory of their sufferings alive.

CHAPTER III.

EARLY EXPLORATIONS AND SETTLEMENT.

When Columbus, in 1492, returned to Europe with the news that he had discovered a new world, peopled with a strange race, such as had no counterpart in any of the older portions of the globe, he turned loose a number of hardy and adventurous navigators, who sailed north, south and west to make additional discoveries. Columbus had set out with the expectation and hope of discovering a new and shorter and safer route to the Indies, and the adventurous navigators who followed him had the same object uppermost in their minds. No one thought of sending out colonies to the new world; all minds were intent on finding the long-sought for and much desired new passage. Up and down the coast of America went those hardy seamen, peering into bays and inlets, forcing their way up rivers, all intent on finding the waterway across the continent they all believed existed. Spain soon heard of gold and silver in the new world, and from that moment the Spaniards had but one thought, and that was to obtain possession of that gold. To accomplish that they would undertake any adventure, suffer any hardship. On the islands first discovered they established small colonies, with no intent of permanent occupation of the country, but to make supply stations for their expeditions in the quest for gold. The English were not a colonizing people. They were content with their own Island, and their claims to portions of France. Their seamen, however, were the most adventurous of any, and varied their search for the new passage by capturing Spanish galleons with their precious cargoes.

Nearly a century elapsed after the discovery of America before a colony from any European nation was settled on the mainland. In 1565 Spain, in her quest for gold, planted a small colony at St. Augustine, Florida. Thirty-nine years later, 1604, the French made their first effort at colonization, at Port Royal, Acadia, now Nova Scotia, and in 1607 the first English colonist landed at Jamestown. The station at Port Royal was only intended as a sort of relay for the expeditions in search of the new passage, and that at St. Augustine for the furnishing of supplies to the gold-seekers. The English, however, came with the sole intent of settling in this new world, and building for themselves a home. They contented themselves with settling along the coast, and made but little effort to penetrate far into the interior. They thought, too, but little of trading with the natives, not deeming it possible the savages had anything a civilized man would desire. A new home was all they were after. The Spaniards pushed into the interior from St. Augustine in search for gold; the French explored the rivers and bays, still dreaming of a short road to Cathay. On the ocean the bold and hardy adventurer was the Englishman, but his boldness and love of adventure ceased when he settled on land, and it was left to the Frenchman to carry explorations over rivers and mountains and lakes, through forests and across prairies. With the Frenchman it was at first more of a religious crusade than a permanent settlement of the country. When he erected the banner of his King, in token of taking possession of the country in the name of his master, he also erected the cross, to indicate that he bore to the natives a new religion.

The missionaries of the cross pushed out in advance of the hardy explorer, carrying to the aborigines the strange story of the God who died for man. They were filled with a zeal that nothing could daunt. No hardship, however great, no peril, however serious, arrested them. They gave names to our rivers, lakes and mountains. They scattered the names of their saints around with almost reckless profusion. At one time it was common for the Frenchman to scoff at England as being a nation of traders or shopkeepers, but in the settlement of America the French took largely the lead of all others in opening up trade with the

Red Man. As has been said the English colonist was content to settle along the Atlantic coast, to plough and dig, and endeavor to get a living from the virgin soil, and look to the old country for all other supplies. Hardly, however, would a French colony be established than the *courier du bois*, or "wood ranger," with his rifle over his shoulder, and a scanty supply of provisions, would start out in search of peltries. If he came to a lake or river, he made a canoe, and with that paddled along hundreds of miles from any others of his race. When he had secured his load of peltries he would return to his starting point, dispose of them to the trader, get a new supply of ammunition, and squander the rest of his money in a few days of riotous living, and then return again to the wild woods and wild life. Everywhere he made friends with the natives; married their maidens, and contested in athletic sports with the warriors. On his return to his civilized fellow-men he had strange tales to tell of the wonderful countries he had seen.

Following closely in the wake of the *courier du bois*, and sometimes far in advance of him, would be found the faithful and zealous missionary. Thus, by these two classes, much of the great continent of America was explored. When, for the first time, a white man trod this part of the United States, now known as Indiana, is not definitely certain. It is not a matter of very great importance, yet much has been written on the subject. From the known adventurous disposition of the *couriers du bois*, it is highly probable that it was not very long after the settlement of Montreal and Quebec that they found their way across Lake Erie, and through what is now Northern Indiana. They were, doubtless, soon followed by the missionary, for when the first settlers came they found that some of the rivers were known to the Indians by French names. This was notably the case with the St. Mary and St. Joseph. In 1657, Sanson, the Royal Geographer of France, made a map of New France, on which the Maumee River is correctly delineated, thus showing that prior to that time some one had visited and navigated that stream, and had mapped it with the adjacent country.

In 1669 Robert Cavelier, *Sieur de La Salle*, started from Canada, in quest of the "great river," stories of which he

had heard from the Indians, being convinced that if such a river existed it would lead him on the way to the Indies. In his journey he skirted the southern boundary of Indiana. He returned by way of the Ohio, and after his return set up a claim to vast tracts of lands in this region, and devised those lands to his heirs by will. It is fairly well settled that a trading post was established on the St. Joseph of the Lake as early as 1672. It was in no sense of the word a permanent settlement, but only a trading post. It was near the principal towns of the Miamis, and furnished a most advantageous point for trading for peltries. Nor was it even a permanent trading post, for it was not marked on any of the earlier maps, and the French explorers, and makers of maps, were exceedingly careful to mark all points at which posts or settlements had been established, as such settlements or posts were the visible evidences of their claims to the country. Joliet's "Larger Map," dated 1674, marks the Ohio River and calls it "Route du Sieur de La Salle, pour aller dans le Mexique." His "Smaller Map" has the Ohio also traced, with an inscription to the effect that the river had been explored by La Salle. There is still another map in existence, evidently made prior to 1673, which shows the course and direction of the Ohio. It also bears an inscription that the river had been navigated by La Salle. It was on the explorations of La Salle that the French Government based its claims to the country, but on none of those maps is there a mark showing that at any point in Indiana was there a French settlement of any kind.

But there are still stronger evidences that no such settlements existed at that early date. Franquelin's map of 1684, and D'Anville's map of "LaSalle's explorations from 1679 to 1683," give the courses of the various streams in Indiana, the Ohio, Wabash, Eel, Tippecanoe, and others, with more or less exactness, the latter being especially full and correct, but neither of them marks a single Indian or French settlement. The Indians had been driven away, prior to that time, by the Iroquois, and had not returned. This fact was evidently known to La Salle, and as the maps were made from his tracings, they bear the very best testimony to the fact that neither Indians nor whites were lo-

cated in Indiana at that time. At all other points, both Indian and French settlements are marked with great care. It is hardly possible that La Salle, exploring the country by the order of his King, would have so carefully marked Indian and white settlements in one part of the country, and wholly neglected to designate those in this section. From all the records then, it may be put down as certain that prior to 1684 there were no French settlements in Indiana, and there is nothing but tradition upon which to found a claim that any such were made for a number of years after that period.

It is also evident that prior to 1669 no explorations had been made south of the lakes. It is highly probable that the Canadian trappers, and perhaps missionaries, had traversed a part of the country lying south of the lakes, but if so they have left no record of it, and while the *couriers du bois* were careless of such matters, the missionaries, filled with zeal for their country as well as for the church, and being taught to record their journeys and discoveries, would hardly have failed to make some note of their visits to this unknown section, had such visits been made. The only record we have of such visits by any person is the map of Sanson, before referred to. It traces the Maumee, but makes no mention of the St. Joseph or St. Mary, and from that fact we are safe in concluding that whoever made the visit, on which the map was based, did it hastily, and got no farther into the interior of the country than the head of the Maumee. It is also possible that they only actually traced that stream a few miles from its mouth, and from the general course of it and from Indian testimony, carried it on the map much farther than they had personally explored it. In those early days many parts of the maps that were made were based upon just such conjectures. Take Franquelin's map, as a sample. It was prepared with great care, and was officially endorsed, yet the courses of the various streams are much out of the true way. Taking all these things into consideration, it is by no means certain, then, notwithstanding the Maumee is marked on the Sanson map, that any explorer had actually followed it from the lake to its head.

There is also some confusion as to the actual time when

La Salle first visited the State. It has been claimed that he crossed the northern corner of the State on his first expedition, but there is no evidence on which to base such a claim. It is pretty well established, on the contrary, that he went and returned via the Ohio River. His real object in the journey was to discover the "Great River," and determine whether it was the much sought-for highway to the Indies, and his secondary object was to investigate the desirability of the country as to trade. Let us now follow the intrepid La Salle on his exploring tour. He was the ablest, bravest, and most devoted of all those Frenchmen who displayed such contempt for danger and hardship in traversing this great unknown country, and was worthy of a better fate than to fall by the hand of a cowardly assassin.

The very time of his setting out on his first expedition is clouded in uncertainty. Henri Joutel, in speaking of him, says that he spent twenty years in his explorations. He was assassinated in 1687. Twenty years would carry him back to 1667. Joutel might have been speaking in general terms, and not pretending to be exact to a year. In 1677 La Salle in a memorial to the King, and speaking in the third person, says: "In the year 1667, and those following, he made divers voyages, with much expense, in which he, for the first time explored many countries to the south of the great lakes, and among others the great river of the Ohio." This is a plain and definite statement that he began his explorations in 1667. The earliest written mention of his departure from Canada on his explorations, is found in a letter dated November 11, 1669. This letter was written by *Sieur Patoulet*, and in it he says that La Salle and his party had set out with a design to explore a passage to China and Japan. They left *La Chine* in July, 1669. The question is, was this his first expedition, or did he actually make one in 1667? La Salle was a very careful man, and made elaborate notes of all he saw and did. No records exist showing that he made any such expedition in 1667. Therefore the first expedition we have to consider is that of 1669. As has been said, he left *La Chine* in July of that year. He proceeded to the western extremity of Lake Ontario, and there met Louis Joliet, who was returning from

an unsuccessful search for the lost copper mines of Lake Superior. He gave such an account of his search, and the country through which he had journeyed, that La Salle's party disagreed as to the direction in which they should proceed. The priests who were with him finally decided to go to the North, over the route traveled by Joliet. La Salle still clung to his design to find, if possible, the "Great River," and determine whether it led to China and Japan, as believed. So his little party divided.

From this point his journeyings are lost in uncertainty, owing, probably, to the fact that after his return his vessel was lost in the lake, with all his manuscripts. It has been contended that he went from Ontario to Lake Erie, and skirting along its shores discovered the mouth of the Maumee, and ascended that stream and from it found a portage to the Wabash, and then followed that stream to the Ohio. In support of this claim it has been argued that he had trading as well as discovery in view; that he had heard from the *couriers du bois* of the great advantages for trading to be found at the head of the Maumee, as the principal villages of the *Miamis* were located at that point; that the country was full of beavers, and other fur-bearing animals, and also from them he had learned of the short portage to the Wabash, and that that stream would lead him to the "Great River." These are the inducements that have been supposed to have led him to adopt that route. The almost continuous waterway to the "Great River" must have been a strong inducement, as it furnished the easiest means of transportation, and was far preferable to a long journey through trackless forests, with the added dangers from the Indians. The best evidence, however, is that he passed from Ontario to the Alleghany River, and from that to the Ohio, for there can be no question that he traced the Ohio to the falls. He laid claim to having done so, and his Government claimed the country because of his explorations. The English made expeditions to the Kanawha in 1671 and set up a claim to the Ohio Valley because of them, but the French contended that La Salle's discoveries antedated theirs.

In 1679, La Salle, desirous of reaching the post he had established on the Illinois, started out to find a portage he

had heard of between the St. Joseph of the Lake and the Kankakee, in what is now St. Joseph County. He was, at the time, at a small fort he had built at the mouth of the St. Joseph. It was in December, and the ice was already forming on the river when he set out. For want of a guide his boat missed the portage, and La Salle, landing in search of it, became lost in the wilderness, but at last returned to his boat, and the portage being found, he and his party crossed to the Kankakee, descended that stream and safely reached his destination.

In 1681 he again visited the portage, this time for the purpose of making a treaty with the Miami Indians. This treaty was one of the historic events in the early settlement of this great region.

In 1680 La Salle built Fort Crevecouer, and according to his statement and that of the Marquis de Denonville, had for several years prior to that time maintained an important canoe trade with the Ohio and Oubache, called St. Jerome, in France. La Salle had not at that time adopted the Iroquois name of "Ohio," but had given that river the name of Baudrane. The French claims were based on his discoveries made prior to 1671, and if he knew nothing of the river except below the mouth of the Wabash they would have been of little value. He claimed to have discovered the river, and that claim is no longer disputed by historians. If he did discover it, it must have been in 1669, and that ought to settle the fact as to which route he took in that year. It is highly probable that on a later voyage he ascended the Maumee to the portage and then crossed to the Wabash. In fact there can be little doubt remaining on that point. He claims to have discovered the portage. In 1681 he drew up his will, and in that important document he set out that he had discovered a way to the Mississippi by the head of Lake Erie, but had abandoned it because it had become too dangerous owing to the presence of the Iroquois. Pere Allouez, in 1680, referred to the portage from the Maumee to the Wabash, and says it was a shorter route to the Mississippi than the one usually taken by the St. Joseph of the Lake and the Kankakee.

For several years La Salle carried on a very large trade with the Indians on the Wabash and the Ohio, and that

trade was interrupted by the incursions of the fierce and bloody Iroquois, who sought to drive the Miamis from these favorite hunting and trapping grounds. He did not, however, build any forts or establish any permanent trading posts within the limits of Indiana. His principal post was Fort St. Louis, on the Illinois River, and around that post he gathered the various tribes that had been driven from their homes on the Wabash and Maumee by the Iroquois. In the midst of his great cares, and his growing traffic with the Indians, and his desire for gain, he never lost sight of his one great scheme to fully explore the Mississippi from its source to its mouth. He pursued that project with unabated ardor and under great discouragements, and finally lost his life. La Salle was the first white man to skirt the southern border of Indiana, which he did in 1669, and also the first white man to make known to the world the country around the headwaters of the Maumee.

It is about as difficult to determine when the first actual settlement of the whites was made in Indiana, as to determine the exact time and route of the early explorers. For Fort Wayne it has been claimed that it had become an important trading post as early as 1672, and several dates have been fixed for the first occupation of Vincennes, extending over more than half a century. According to one tradition, French traders visited the site of Vincennes as early as 1690, and many of them remained there, marrying among the Indians, and raising families. Another tradition puts the first arrival of the traders or explorers in 1680. Still another is to the effect that a party of French Canadians, in 1702, descended the Wabash River, and established several posts, Vincennes being one of them. The historians of the Maumee Valley claim that the first post was established on the present site of Fort Wayne. A part of the confusion which exists as to Fort Wayne has been caused through the misapprehension as to certain visits of the French missionaries. The missionaries left records of their work among the Miami Indians, and as the main villages of the Miamis, when record history first begins, were around the headwaters of the Maumee, it has been taken for granted that the labors of the missionaries were at that point. However, the Miamis first lived around

Green Bay, Wisconsin, and when the larger part of the tribe migrated to Indiana and Ohio, a remnant remained at Green Bay. It was among that remnant the missionaries labored.

As has already been stated the maps covering the explorations up to 1684 show no settlements anywhere in Indiana, and from the importance attached by the French Government to all such settlements, the conclusion is irresistible that prior to that time none existed. On the Wabash near the present site of Vincennes was an important Indian village, known as Chip-kaw-kay, and it is highly probable that when the first French settlers arrived they heard stories of prior visits made by traders, and after a lapse of time, those traditions became transposed into facts relating to the first actual settlement. To hold their claim upon the Mississippi Valley, the French, in 1702, determined to establish some posts along the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers, and M. Juchereau did erect a fort at the mouth of the Ohio. Some writers have attempted to claim that Vincennes was the site of this fort, but all the records oppose such a view.

M. de Denonville adds to the confusion. In a memoir on the French possessions in North America, dated the 8th of March, 1688, he says the French at that time had "divers establishments," on the Mississippi, "as well as on that of the Oyo, Oubache, etc., which flows into the said River Mississippi." What he meant by the term "divers establishments," is doubtful. That La Salle, and probably others, had, prior to that time, visited the Indian villages and traded with them, is well settled, and it is probable that M. de Denonville had in mind only that those traders had made friendly relations with the Indians, whereby the various hunters and trappers, roaming the country, could take to the villages their accumulations of peltries until such times as they could be shipped to Canada. He certainly could not have meant that the French had established any permanent posts or colonies on the Wabash, or even on the Ohio. In fact, up to that time the Wabash country was in such a state of alarm from the incursions of the Iroquois that it would have been dangerous, if not prac-

tically impossible, to attempt to make any settlements by the whites.

If there was one man above another who was interested in establishing such posts, it was La Salle. He was endeavoring to build up an exclusive trade with the entire Ohio and Mississippi Valleys. He was on friendly terms with the Miamis of Indiana and the Illinois of Illinois. The Iroquois from the east were preparing to war against the Illinois and the Miamis, in 1682, and La Salle used all his efforts to get those tribes to form a confederation and settle around Fort St. Louis, on the Illinois, and finally succeeded in getting all the Indians of Indiana to remove to that place. The Iroquois would not trade with La Salle, and they only had roaming parties of warriors in Indiana, and along the Wabash. The French could have made no settlements there without protecting them with a heavy military force. The Indians did not return to Indiana until about 1712. So it seems that by the term "divers establishments," M. de Denonville did not mean permanent settlements or posts.

In 1715 rumors began to circulate that the English were moving to occupy this country. Hitherto there had been no necessity for permanent settlements, all that the French traders needed being friendly relations with the Indians. But now, when the hated English threatened to encroach on their territory, and lay claim to it, it was time to do something more than hunt, trap and trade among the Indians and make maps. Permanent posts, occupied by people holding allegiance to the French King, and flying the French flag, were needed. Then it was the French Governors of Louisiana and Canada began to send out their agents to select places for posts and settlements.

Among those sent out was Jean Baptiste Bissot, Sieur de Vincennes. He had long been an agent of the Governor of Canada among the Indians, and was in great favor with them, but the powers at Versailles did not look on him with much favor, as he had been accused of illicit trading with the Indians. From all accounts it is probable he had more influence with the Indians than any other man then in America. At that time hostilities were raging between the Iroquois and the Miamis, and it was a part of the mis-

sion of Vincennes to bring those two nations into harmony, as they were both regarded as allies by the French. It is not certain that he either established or attempted to establish a post on the Wabash, but he died in 1719 at the Miami village Kekionga, at the head of the Maumee. He must not be confused with the *Sieur de Vincennes* who established the post at Vincennes. That Vincennes was killed near the mouth of the Ohio, in a battle with the Indians, in 1736. That the Vincennes who was killed at this battle was the one who established the post on the Wabash, is fixed by Lieutenant St. Ange, who succeeded to the command of the post. In one of his letters to the Governor of Louisiana St. Ange refers to the death in battle of *Sieur de Vincennes*, and uses the words, "who established this post." Just who that *Sieur de Vincennes* was is now a matter of dispute, but the general weight of authority is that he was a *Francois Morgane*, or *Margane*, a nephew of *Jean Baptiste Bissot*. Whoever he was, it is certain that he had not only succeeded to the title of *Bissot*, but to his popularity among the Indians. When the elder Vincennes died *Sieur Dubuisson* was appointed agent among the Indians in his stead, and was named as the commandant of *Ouiatenon*. It can not be determined whether this appointment is to be construed as meaning that a post had already been established at *Ouiatenon*, or that he was to establish such a post. It is probable, however, that about this time, 1720, a post or trading agency was established at *Ouiatenon*.

One of the last to investigate the question of the date of the settlements on the Wabash, was Mr. Justin Winsor, Librarian of Harvard University. On page 148 of "*The Mississippi Basin*," he says:

"The territory in dispute between the French and English traders was along the Wabash and up the Ohio and its lateral valleys. Charlevoix speaks of the region north of the Ohio as likely to become the granary of Louisiana. Senex, the English cartographer, made it appear that through this region 'of one hundred and twenty leagues, the Illinois hunt cows,' and he magnified the trade in buffalo peltries. The waning power of the Iroquois and the coming of the Delawares and Shawnees into the Ohio Val-

ley had permitted the French to conduct more extensive explorations, and they had found themselves liable to confront all along the valley the equally adventurous English.

"The Mississippi Company had urged (September 15, 1720) the building of a fort on the Wabash as a safeguard against the English, and the need of it had attracted the attention of Charlevoix. Some such precaution, indeed, was quite as necessary to overawe the savages, for now that the Wabash-Maumee portage was coming into favor, the Indians had lately been prowling about it and murdering the passers. La Harpe, in 1724, feared the danger of delay. In 1725, the necessity for some such protection alarmed Boisbriant early in the year. The Carolina traders had put up two booths on the Wabash, and rumors reached Kaskaskia of other stations which they had established farther up the Ohio Valley. These last intruders were probably Pennsylvanians—at least it is so assumed in the treaty made at Albany in 1754. The language of such treaties is rarely the best authority, but it is certain that Vaudreuil, in Quebec, believed it at the time. He reported to his home government that the English were haunting the upper waters of the Wabash and trading among the Miamis. As a result we find the Company of the Indies (December, 1725) instructing Boisbriant to beware of the English, and to let M. de Vincennes, then among the Miamis, know that these rivals were moving in that direction. The next year the Company informed Perier (September 30, 1726) of their determination to be prepared, and authorized him, in concert with Vincennes, to repel the English if they approached. Vincennes had already been reconnoitering up the Ohio Valley to see if any English were there."

It is evident that in 1715, at least, there was no post on the Wabash; that Jean Baptiste Bissot was ordered to establish such post or posts, and died in 1719. It is certain there was no post near the Wabash-Maumee portage. We find La Harpe fearing the danger of delay in establishing a post for the protection of the portage in 1724, and the necessity of some such protection alarmed Boisbriant in 1725. In 1726 Vincennes and Perier were ordered to make preparation to repel the English. At that time Vincennes was at Kaskaskia, and Perier had just been appointed to

succeed Bienville in Louisiana. It may be conceded that the anxiety of the Company of the Indies for a post for the protection of the passers at the Wabash-Maumee portage does not preclude there having been a post at Vincennes. But in all probability, had there been such a post prior to 1725, its commandant would have been ordered to take steps to protect the portage, either by treaties with the Indians or by force, but no record of such instructions appears to have been found.

It is probable that a post was established at Ouiatenon about 1720. This post was situated on the north bank of the Wabash River, about eighteen miles below the mouth of the Tippecanoe. The best record is that this was the first post established in what is now Indiana, by the French. No effort was ever made to plant a colony there, but it became in time quite a prominent trading point. There are reasons why this point should have been selected as the best possible place for the establishment of a post. It was the largest village of the Ouiatenon Indians, was in the center of the beaver country, and was easily accessible. It was, also, the head of navigation, so to speak, on the Wabash. That is, it was where the cargoes had to be transferred, owing to the rapids in the river, from the large canoes which were used on the lower Wabash, to the smaller ones that were used between Ouiatenon and the portage to the Maumee. For trading purposes no better place on the Wabash could have been selected.

The threatened inroads of the English made the establishment of other posts imperative, and in 1725 they were ordered. Evidence recently discovered by the Indiana Historical Society shows that the post at Vincennes was established in 1731. In that year Vincennes and his faithful Lieutenant, St. Ange, were at Kaskaskia. The journal of La Harpe, giving full particulars of the occurrences in the Illinois and Ouiatenon countries from 1698 to 1722, makes no mention of any post at Vincennes. General Harmar visited the post in 1787, and in a letter to the Secretary of War said that he had been informed by the inhabitants that Vincennes had established the post sixty years before. That would place it in 1727. One of the best evidences that it was not established in any of the earlier years to which

the date has been assigned lies in the fact that all persons concede that it was established by Francois Margane, Sieur de Vincennes. He did not succeed to that title until late in the year 1719. He was the son of a sister of the elder Sieur Vincennes, and succeeded to the title on the death of his uncle, which took place, as has been noted, in 1719, at the Indian village on the Maumee. It is very possible that French traders had visited the Indian village of Chip-kaw-kay many years previously, but the fact is apparent that no settlement was made or post established before 1727. Some eight years later a number of French families settled there, and it became the first actual settlement of the State. It was called in the records, and referred to by the inhabitants as "The Post," "Old Post," "Au Poste," and was not known under the name of Vincennes until 1752. It remained the only settlement of whites in the State until after the Revolutionary War, although a military fort was maintained both at the head of the Maumee and at Ouiatenon by the French until the country was ceded to Great Britain.

From its settlement until it was finally transferred to Great Britain, Vincennes was under the jurisdiction of New Orleans. Its trade, however, was largely with Canada. The peltries were obtained from the Indians, or by personal efforts of the trappers, and after being thoroughly dried were packed in bundles or bales, of about one hundred pounds each. By canoes these were transported up the Wabash and Little Rivers to the portage, and from there carried across to the Maumee, where they were again loaded into pirogues or keel boats and taken down the Maumee to Lake Erie, and then on to Canada. After the French families settled at Vincennes, and began the cultivation of the soil, their surplus products were placed in boats and floated down to the Ohio and then to the Mississippi and to New Orleans.

France governed her colonies from Versailles. They were allowed no latitude whatever. Even their domestic relations were controlled by written instructions from the parent country. The mills in which their grain was to be ground were designated. Even the very lowest offices were filled by appointment from Paris, and the people given no

chance at self government. This was an element of weakness which finally caused the overthrow of French authority in America.

Not long after the post was established at Vincennes the Indians gave to the Post a large tract of land for the use of the settlers. This land was held in common, and not sub-divided among the people. It was held really to belong to the French King, and not to the people. Grants from this tract were given from time to time to individual holders by the Governor of Vincennes, but the bulk was held in common. The settlers remained upon the most friendly terms with the Indians, and many of the men took Indian wives. The people were careless, indolent, and without ambition. They made no effort to settle and improve the surrounding country, but were contented to live within the Post, and from it cultivate some portions of the outlying land. When the harvest was over they gave themselves up again to idleness and pleasure, that is, such pleasure as could be found in a small settlement so far removed from civilization. The only news they received from the outside world was by the occasional arrival of a canoe from Lake Erie, or from New Orleans. To get enough to eat and drink was seemingly their only object in life. The river furnished fish, the forests game, and for their other wants they raised wheat, oats, barley, and small quantities of maize. They also cultivated orchards, and vineyards, manufacturing the product into wine and cider. In religion they were devout Catholics, and their spiritual wants were attended to by the missionaries. But little attention was paid to education, and but few could read or write.

The colony was planted by France for the sole purpose of making good her claim to the country, and not for any purpose of conquest, or even a final and complete settlement of the whole territory. For all the purposes the French government had in view, a settlement or colony of a dozen families was as good as one of several hundred. In fact, it was better, for such a small settlement would not alarm the Indians, and therefore would call for no defense, while if a larger one should be planted a numerous garrison of soldiers would be necessary to defend it from the Indians, and soldiers, at that time, France could not spare.

So it was that the little colony was left to its own resources, and grew in numbers very slowly. A few families also settled in the neighborhood of Ouiatenon.

Vincennes remained in command of the Old Post until his death in 1736. In that year trouble arose between the French and the Indians on the Mississippi, and Vincennes was called upon to reinforce the French at the mouth of the Ohio. There a bloody battle was fought and Vincennes was counted among the slain. Louis St. Ange was appointed to succeed him and commanded the Post until 1764, a short time before it was finally surrendered to the British. From all accounts St. Ange must have been a model officer for such a place. He managed his little colony with skill, and maintained friendly relations with the surrounding Indians. About 1747, however, signs of coming trouble began to multiply. The British were reaching out after the fur trade of the Indians. They outbid the French and paid higher prices for skins than the French traders. A plot was formed whereby all the French posts west of Pennsylvania were to be destroyed. The conspiracy was discovered by the French, and it failed of ultimate consummation, but many depredations followed. The Miamis who had joined in the conspiracy captured Fort Miamis, on the Maumee, by surprise and burned it. Its garrison was finally released. The hostiles were soon put to flight and the fort rebuilt.

The disaffection continued, however, and in the autumn of 1751 the hostiles killed two of the friendly Indians near Kekionga, and sold their scalps to the British. About the same time the Piankashaws killed two Frenchmen a short distance below the fort of Vincennes, and followed it by killing two slaves within sight of the Post. At Christmas five Frenchmen were killed on the Vermillion. No attack was made on Vincennes, owing, perhaps, to the fact that St. Ange had put it in a state of secure defense. The depredations continuing, and growing in number, it was determined to make active war against the hostiles. The center of British influence was at the Pickawillany town on the Big Miami, and it was determined to destroy that town. On the 21st of June, 1752, the French, aided by the friendly Indians, surprised the town of Pickawillany, but most of

the occupants escaped to the fort, which was at once besieged by a force of two hundred and forty French and Indians. Everything around the fort was destroyed when the besiegers offered to withdraw without further damage, provided the English in the fort were surrendered to them. The fort was not prepared to withstand a siege, and it was wholly destitute of water, and the proposition was accepted. The Indians concealed two of the English, but the others were surrendered. One of the prisoners was at once slain in plain sight of the fort. Here the Indians gave an exhibition of their cannibalistic traits. Among the Indians who had been captured was the principal chief of the Piankashaws. He had long been friendly with the English, and from that friendship had won the name of "Old Britain." He was held responsible for much of the disaffection against the French, and the Indian allies of the French killed him, cut him to pieces, and after cooking the flesh, ate it in full view of the people of the fort. The French returned to the Wabash, and for some little time peace reigned.

In 1754, before the claims of France had been ceded to the British, Benjamin Franklin urged the establishment of English colonies in the country northwest of the Ohio River. He urged that the country belonged to Great Britain, and that the claim of that Government ought to be made good by actual possession and settlement. He proposed to plant one colony in the valley of the River Scioto, and to erect small fortifications at Buffalo Creek, on the Ohio; at the mouth of the Tioga, on the south side of Lake Erie; at Hockhocking, and at or near the mouth of the Wabash. He also advised that the French post at Sandusky, and all the little French posts south and west of the lakes and east of the Mississippi River, be removed or taken and garrisoned by British troops. "Every fort," he said, "ought to have a small settlement around it, as the fort would protect the settlers and the settlers defend the fort and supply it with provisions." At that time there were thirteen French posts in the territory alluded to, three of them being within the limits of what is now Indiana—one at Vincennes, one at Ouiatenon, and one at the Maumee. At the close of 1765, after the country had been ceded by France,

the French, in the northwestern territory, including those at Detroit, only numbered six hundred families.

In 1760 Canada was surrendered to the British, and shortly afterward officers were sent out to take command of the posts around the lakes. Major Rogers took command of Detroit in November of that year, and men under his orders took possession of Fort Miamis and Ouiatenon. Vincennes was under the jurisdiction of New Orleans, and was not covered by the surrender of Canada. Now affairs changed very materially. Before this it had been English emissaries stirring up the Indians to hostilities against the French; now it was French emissaries exciting the Indians against the English. In 1761 and 1762 numerous plots were formed by the Indians for the destruction of the English garrisons, but they were discovered and frustrated. In 1763 the conspiracy headed by Pontiac was formed. An account of this outbreak against the English will be found in another chapter, but it is proper to state here that the British garrisons at Ouiatenon and Miamis were surprised and captured. Vincennes had not yet been surrendered to the British, but was still under the command of St. Ange, and was not molested by Pontiac. The French and English were nominally at peace, the French King having agreed to surrender to the British all the territory east of the Mississippi, but the final transfer had not been made. Pontiac and his confederated Indians stood in the way of the English taking possession. There was not an English garrison or an English post in all Indiana and Illinois. The French officers in command of the posts that were to be surrendered to the English had been ordered to deliver them over whenever demand was made for them, but the demand did not come. As the territory was no longer that of their King they were anxious to leave, but had to remain. If they departed it would leave the posts and the settlement around them without any form of government, and no one with authority to keep the peace, or prevent outbreaks by the Indians. They virtually no longer had any authority to govern, but the people would acquiesce and humanity demanded that they remain until those commissioned by the British government to exercise authority should relieve them. The only attempt by the

British to assume control was through a proclamation by General Gage, issued in December, 1764, as follows:

"By his Excellency, Thomas Gage, Major General of the King's armies, Colonel of the Twenty-second Regiment, General commanding in chief of all the forces of His Majesty in North America, etc., etc.

"Whereas, by the peace concluded at Paris on the 10th of February, 1763, the country of the Illinois has been ceded to his Britannic Majesty, and the taking possession of the said country of the Illinois by the troops, though delayed, has been determined upon, we have found it good to make known to the inhabitants that his Majesty grants to the inhabitants of the Illinois the liberty of the Catholic religion, as it has already been granted to his subjects in Canada; he has consequently given the most precise and effective orders, to the end that his new Roman Catholic subjects of the Illinois may exercise the worship of their religion according to the rites of the Roman Church, in the same manner as in Canada.

"That his Majesty, moreover, agrees that the French inhabitants or others who have been the subjects of the most Christian King, may retire in full safety and freedom, wherever they please, even to New Orleans, or any other part of Louisiana, although it should happen that the Spaniards take possession of it in the name of his Catholic Majesty; and they may sell their estates, provided it be to subjects of his Majesty, and transport their effects as well as their persons, without restraint upon their emigration, under any pretense whatever, except in consequence of debts or of criminal process.

"That those who choose to retain their lands and become subjects of his Majesty shall enjoy the same rights and privileges, the same security for their persons and effects, and liberty of trade, as the old subjects of the King.

"That they are commanded, by these presents, to take the oath of fidelity and obedience to his Majesty, in presence of Sieur Sterling, Captain of the Highland Regiment, the bearer hereof, and furnished with our full powers for this purpose.

"That we recommend forcibly to the inhabitants to conduct themselves like good and faithful subjects, avoiding,

by a wise and prudent demeanor, all cause of complaint against them.

"That they act in concert with his Majesty's officers, so that his troops may take peaceable possession of all the posts, and order be kept in the country. By this means alone they will spare his Majesty the necessity of recurring to the force of arms, and will find themselves saved from the scourge of a bloody war, and all the evils which the march of an army into their country would draw after it.

"We direct that these presents be read, published and posted up in the usual places.

"Done and given at headquarters, New York. Signed with our hand, sealed with our seal at arms, and countersigned by our secretary, this 30th December, 1764.

"THOMAS GAGE. [L. S.]

"By His Excellency, G. MATURIN."

In the spring of 1764 Neyon de Villiers, who was in command at Chartres, determined to return to New Orleans without waiting the arrival of the British officer who was to relieve him, and he sent to Vincennes for St. Ange to come and take command of the fort.

On receipt of these orders St. Ange, on May 18, 1764, issued a proclamation to the people of Vincennes. After assigning M. Deroite de Richardville and M. de Caindre to the command of the post, the proclamation said:

"Their first care ought to be to maintain a good understanding between the French and the Indians, and to check any beginning of disorder as soon as possible. Whenever complaint shall be made to them against any person, they shall select a tribunal composed of the principal inhabitants of the place, and the matters [in dispute] shall be decided by a plurality of votes. Messrs. Deroite de Richardville and De Caindre can not too earnestly require the inhabitants to maintain their fences, it being the interest of the public that [domestic] animals shall not be allowed to pass from the commons into the cultivated fields. They will prevent, as much as they can, the disorders which are too often occasioned by intoxicating liquors. Whenever any information interesting to the public service shall come to their knowledge, they will apprise me of it. In conclusion, in all cases which I can not foresee, I depend on

their good conduct, and their regard for the public welfare."

Thus it was that the good and wise St. Ange bade farewell to the people he had led and governed for nearly thirty years. All Louisiana had been secretly ceded to Spain, but the fact had been kept from the knowledge of the inhabitants. On the arrival of St. Ange at Fort Chartres, de Villiers placed him in command and then set out for New Orleans. Two expeditions had been sent out by the British to take possession of Fort Chartres—one by way of New Orleans, and the other by the Maumee, but, owing to the hostilities of Pontiac, both had failed of accomplishing their purpose. From the Mississippi to the Alleghanies the Indians were arrayed against the English, and every avenue to the French posts in the Illinois country was closed. The position of St. Ange at Fort Chartres was not an enviable one. The French inhabitants were uncertain as to the attitude Great Britain would assume toward their property claims, and their right to maintain their religious worship, and many of them were anxious to follow Neyon de Villiers to New Orleans. Many did go to St. Louis, fondly hoping that there they would be under the government of their native prince, but it was only to find, in a short time, that they had been transferred to Spain, and the Spanish yoke was but little more welcome than that of the English.

Pontiac was also clamoring at the gates of the fort for aid in his contest with the English. He had formed an extensive conspiracy, but realized that without French assistance the end would soon come, and the Indians be overborne by the power of the hated whites from the east. St. Ange would not listen to him. Finally he was convinced that he could hope for no assistance from the French, and he decided to make peace with the English. On the 10th of October, 1765, St. Ange made a formal delivery of Fort Chartres to Captain Sterling, representing the British Government. Upon taking possession Captain Sterling issued the proclamation which had been prepared by General Gage a year before, in which he formally took possession of the country in the name of the King of England, granting the inhabitants liberty of conscience, and guaranteeing them all their personal and property rights. They were

given the right to emigrate if they so desired, but if they elected to remain, they were required to take the oath of allegiance to the King of Great Britain. Fort Chartres proved to be a very unhealthful place for the new occupants, and several of the officers and many of the soldiers soon died. Captain Sterling himself only lived three months after taking command. In September, 1768, Lieutenant-Colonel Reed held command of the Fort, and by proclamation set up a sort of civil government for the Territory, establishing the first court west of the Alleghanies. It consisted of seven judges, and held power until 1774, when the British Parliament restored the civil law.

On May 19, 1777, two years after the beginning of the war of independence, and almost one year after the colonies had declared they would no longer be subject to King George, Lieutenant-Governor Abbott, of Detroit, arrived at Vincennes. During those ten years the people had lived there without any legal government. As has been noted, when St. Ange went to assume command of Fort Chartres, he left the direction of affairs at Vincennes in the hands of Richardville and De Coudre. No record has ever been found that they exercised any functions of government. The British officers at Fort Chartres had expected, in the spring of 1769, to take possession of Vincennes and Ouiatenon, but had been prevented by various circumstances, and the only attempted exercise of government over the people of those two posts was to take a census in 1770 of the posts on the Wabash and at Fort Miamis, on the Maumee, and an effort in 1772 by General Gage to force the French inhabitants to at once quit the Indian country. The people of Vincennes had not been altogether without some form of government during those unsettled years, for the census of 1770 records that M. Nicholas "is a most substantial inhabitant and has been employed as justice of the peace there, by some authority from the commanding officer at the Illinois." Some grants of land had also been made, those prior to 1770 being signed, one by "Chaparlee," and the other by "Chapard." It has been inferred that Chaparlee and Chapard were one and the same person. Those granted after 1770 were signed by Ste. Marie, whose proper name was Jean Baptiste Racine.

The arbitrary act of General Gage, in 1772, in ordering all the whites to immediately vacate the Indian country, aroused the settlers, and they at once vigorously protested. They declared they held the title to their lands from officers of the French Government, who had a right to convey such titles, and that when the French Government transferred the territory to the English their rights were duly protected by the treaty of cession. Gage was autocratic and determined, and on the receipt of this remonstrance he ordered that all written titles to the possession of the lands should be forwarded to him at New York for examination. The inhabitants were a careless set, and mostly ignorant, and had failed to properly care for the written evidences of the grants made to them, and many of them had been left in the hands of the notary who had drawn them. They never dreamed of any question ever being raised as to their right to the lands they were occupying and had been occupying for nearly half a century. So it was that this last order of Gage fell like a thunderbolt upon the poor inhabitants. Some deeds were found, but many more could not be found. An appeal was made to St. Ange, at St. Louis. He responded by reciting that he had held command of the Post from 1736 to 1764, and that during that time, by order of the Governors, he had granted many parcels of land to various inhabitants by written concessions, and had verbally permitted others to settle on and cultivate lands, of which they had been in possession for many years. Other officers certified that many deeds had been carried away, others removed to the record office of the Illinois, and still others had been lost, or destroyed by rats.

The British Government had already heard the mutterings of discontent in the Eastern Colonies, and did not want to add to their embarrassments at other points, and in 1774 the whole territory northwest of the Ohio was put under the dominion of Canada. The action of Parliament was all that was done until 1777, when, as has been said, Lieutenant-Governor Abbott arrived and assumed command. As to the condition in which he found affairs at that time he reported to Governor Carleton, under date of May 26, 1777:

"Since the conquest of Canada, no person bearing his Majesty's commission has been to take possession; from this your Excellency may easily imagine what anarchy reigns. I must do the inhabitants justice for the respectful reception I met with, and for their readiness in obeying the orders I thought necessary to issue. The Wabache is perhaps one of the finest rivers in the world; on its banks are several Indian towns, the most considerable is the Oujii [Wea], where, it is said, there are 1,000 men capable to bear arms. I found them so numerous, and needy, I could not pass without great expense. The presents, though very large, were in a manner despised, saying their ancient Father (the French) never spoke to them without a barnful of goods; having no troops and only a handful of French, obliged me to esquise [acquiesce] in part of their exorbitant demands, which has occasioned a much greater expense than I could have imagined, but I believe it not thrown away, as I left them seemingly well disposed for his Majesty's Service."

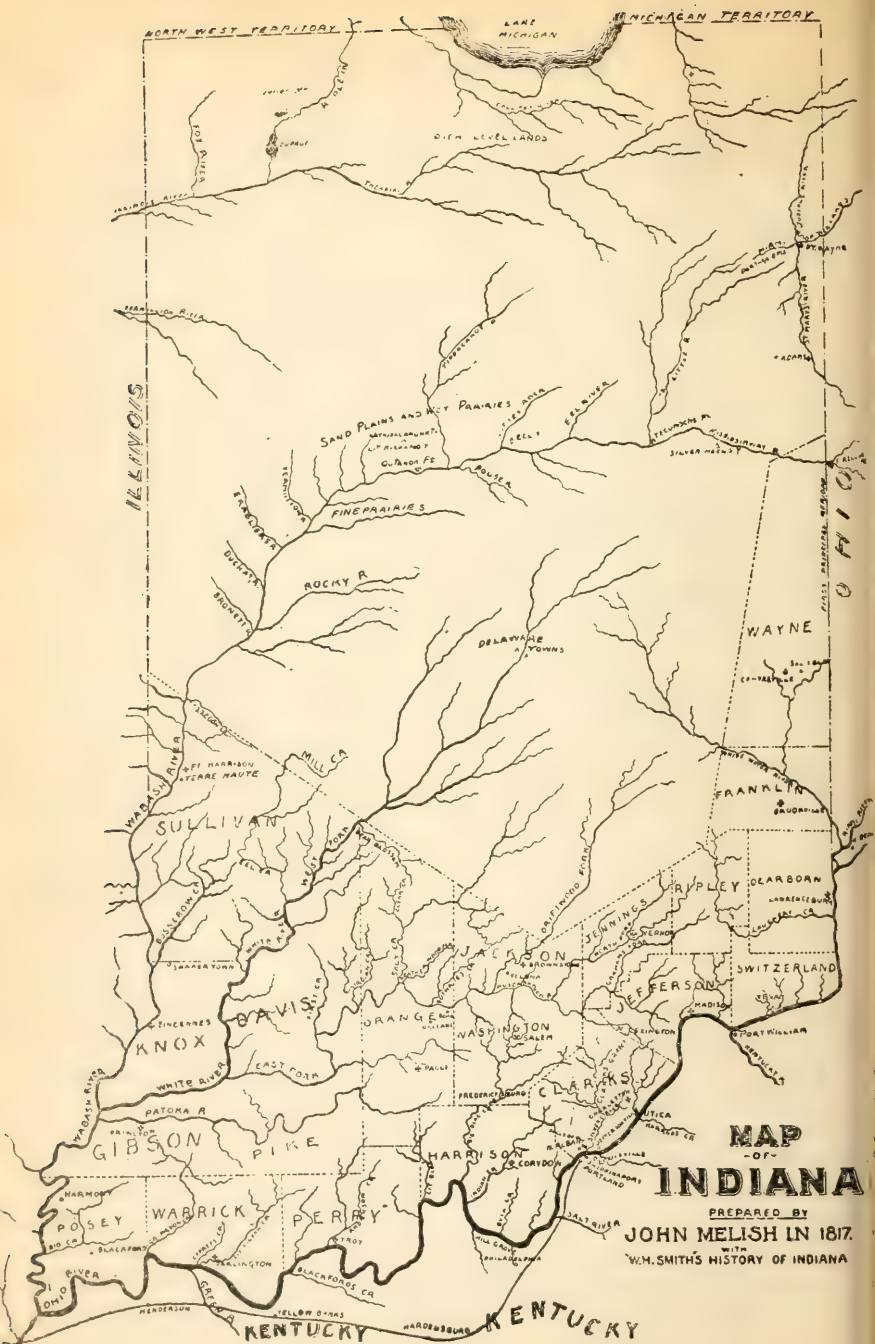
The British did not long hold possession of Vincennes and the territory it governed, for in August, 1778, while Lieutenant-Governor Abbott was away from the Post, Captain Helm, representing General George Rogers Clark, captured the place. Helm, however, was compelled in December following to surrender to the British, who in turn, within three months, were again driven out by Clark, and Vincennes was lost forever to England. Let us now glance for a moment at the fate of the other two posts held by the British in Indiana. As has been stated, soon after Canada was surrendered to the British, Ouiatenon and Fort Miamis were occupied and garrisoned by British troops. They both fell under Indian control during the Pontiac conspiracy, but were restored to British command when the Indians made peace. Ouiatenon had been destroyed by the Indians, and the few French settlers in the neighborhood removed to Vincennes. Fort Miamis was again garrisoned and held until the close of the Revolutionary War.

No attempt at British or American settlements had been made within the boundary of Indiana. Following the capture of Vincennes by General Clark, a few Ameri-

cans went to that point. The Indians still claimed the ownership and possession of all the lands except the tract around Vincennes, which had been given by them for the use of the inhabitants of the Post. While General Clark was exercising authority at Vincennes the Indians ceded to him a tract of 150,000 acres of land around the falls of the Ohio River, which grant was afterward confirmed by Virginia and by Congress. The first American settlement within the limits of Indiana was made on this grant. The years following the close of the war for independence were very dark for settlers on the western frontiers. The Indians were restless over the advance of civilization, and, urged on by English emissaries from Canada and by some of the old French settlers, soon became decidedly hostile. They never had been entirely satisfied with the change from the French to the British, and that to the Americans was far more distasteful. The French had never asked for or taken any of their lands. They only asked for the right to establish small trading posts, to be used as centers of traffic with the Indians themselves. The little land given around the posts for the use of the inhabitants had been freely given, without asking. The French freely mingled with the Indians, living as they lived; marrying among them and raising families. Many of the most distinguished Indian chiefs could trace their lineage back to some gallant French officer, or some daring trader. The French never made war on them, nor cut down their forests, nor drove away the wild game on which they so largely depended for subsistence.

On the other hand, the Americans were grasping, taking no thought of any claims the natives might have to the country, but pushed forward their settlements in utter disregard of any prior rights. Wherever they established a fort, or planted a settlement, the ax was soon applied to the forest, and the game forced to seek other quarters. They only remembered that during their long struggle for independence the Indians had been found in the ranks of the enemy, and that hundreds of homes had been desolated and hundreds of victims cruelly slain, and they acted toward the Indians accordingly. Kentucky had already been seized by the whites, and new settlers for that





delightful region were pouring in. During the year 1780 three hundred family boats arrived at the Falls of the Ohio. A few settlers had also made their appearance on the northern bank of the Ohio. Soon after the conquest of Kaskaskia and Vincennes by General George Rogers Clark, and even before the close of the Revolutionary War, American settlers began to gather at those two points, and to occupy the lands of the Indians.

The Indians realized that a last rally must be made or the Ohio, Wabash and Maumee valleys would follow the hunting grounds of Kentucky. The Miamis had permitted the Pottawattamies, the Shawnees and the Delawares to settle in Indiana. These were three of the most powerful and warlike tribes in the West. The Shawnees were especially implacable. They had hardly erected their wigwams in the territory when they set up a claim to it, even as against the Miamis, and it was in defense of that claim Tecumseh afterward aroused the tribe to a fierce contest with the whites. The British troops had hardly abandoned the forts that were to be delivered to the Americans when the Indians organized a series of depredatory raids on the outlying settlers in Kentucky, and on all sides the torch of war blazed. The depredations were committed by roving bands from the various tribes. They would steal over into Kentucky, surprise some weak block house, or waylay some unsuspecting settler, or ambush some floating boat-load of immigrants, destroy the block house, murder the settler or the immigrants, and then hasten back to the fastnesses of Indiana or Ohio. Several expeditions were organized against the savages, but in the main they were unfortunate for the whites, many of whom were ambushed and slaughtered. Among the most active, and altogether the ablest of those placed in command of the whites, was General George Rogers Clark. In 1786, he organized an expedition of one thousand men, and with that force marched to Vincennes. In proceeding against the Indians farther up the Wabash disaffection broke out among the men, and the force returned to Vincennes, without accomplishing anything. It was then determined to permanently garrison that place, and soldiers for that purpose were recruited, and officers appointed by General

Clark. The details of this attempt to set up a government at Vincennes will be found in another chapter.

All these things operated to prevent any permanent settlement of what was now beginning to be known as the "Northwest Territory." It required several years of war with the Indians before peace was secured. Harmer and St. Clair had to suffer terrible defeats, and General Anthony Wayne had to inflict a like punishment on the Indians before settlers dared to open up their clearings and erect their cabins. In the meantime a few Americans had gathered at Vincennes, and a settlement had been established at Clarksville, on Clark's Grant. In what is now Ohio many settlers had located, and to placate the Indians, who claimed the possession of that country, and as none of it had been ceded by them to the government, Congress ordered that all white settlers should be removed from the Indian lands. In pursuance of this order the troops destroyed a large number of houses, but as soon as the troops would leave the scene of destruction the hardy and daring settlers would again erect their cabins. In 1783 the General Assembly of Virginia passed an act to lay off the town of Clarksville, on the right bank of the river at the Falls of the Ohio. The act provided that the lots, of half an acre each, should be sold at public auction for the best prices that could be had. The purchasers were required to build, on each lot purchased, within three years, a dwelling house, "twenty feet by eighteen, at least, with a brick or stone chimney." Trustees were appointed to conduct the sale and a few lots were disposed of, but the dangers from the Indians prevented the new town from growing very much. It was, however, the first distinctively American settlement in what is now Indiana, with its teeming population.

When General Anthony Wayne forced peace on the Indians, and they had ceded some of their lands to the Government, settlers began to come in more rapidly. At first they clung pretty closely to the Ohio, whence they could, in case of alarm, readily fly to Kentucky, and where they were in more easy reach of needed supplies, but after a few years they began to branch out along the Whitewater. But the great interior of the State was still left in the hands of

the Red Men. Those pioneer settlers mainly came from Virginia, Tennessee and the Carolinas, but some were from Pennsylvania and the New England States, while a few others were of the sturdy Irish or Scotch-Irish stock.

The pioneers were brave, hardy and adventurous. It was not a very inviting scene where they sought to carve out new homes for themselves. The hills around the Ohio were abrupt and steep, covered by heavy forests of centuries' growth. The soil was rich enough when once the heavy timber was cleared away to give room for the plow, but it was the labor of months and years to cut away that heavy timber and clear out the undergrowth. But here and there among those hills, and along the banks of the Beautiful River, where the hills did not come down close to the water, were lovely little valleys of level or slightly rolling ground, which gave great promise to the home-seeker, and it was not many years before those lovely valleys were blooming with the harvest for the use of civilized man. The forests were full of game. Herds of buffalo were found everywhere, and the sturdy pioneer was hardly ever out of sight of a deer. Bear were almost as plentiful, and in the fall or early winter great flocks of wild geese were seen wending their way southward, and the streams were filled with wild ducks, while in the spring the wild pigeons darkened the sky from their very numbers. Yet, after all, for the first score or more of years the life was not altogether an inviting one, for, in addition to the great labor required to open up the farms and prepare for the harvest, there were the deprivations which had to be undergone. Many comforts had to be dispensed with, and the settler had to depend upon himself for all articles of food, while the good housewife made all the clothing for herself and family. Neighbors were widely separated; stores there were none; physicians could not be had, and the new climate was very unwholesome. It is true that the diseases generally prevailing were of a malarial type, but they were such as to break down the system and shorten life. The pharmacopoeia of the early settlers was very simple. It contained but one or two formulas: whisky and tansy, or whisky and wild cherry bark, for most of the diseases, and simple herbs cul-

tivated in the gardens for all others. Then, to add to all else, there were the roving and treacherous savages.

The French who had first come into the State had been content to live at the trading posts, cultivating a little land in its immediate vicinity, but the American pioneers could not be satisfied with such a life. They wanted homes and farms of their own, and they boldly pushed out into the wilderness. At first they kept close enough together to spread the alarm in case of Indian incursions, but now and then one bolder than the others would break far off into the woods and live the life almost of a hermit. The treaty made by Wayne, after his defeat of the confederated tribes, opened up much new territory to settlement, and he erected a fort at the head of the Maumee, where the city of Fort Wayne now stands, right in the heart of the Indian country, and around it gathered a few American families. This was the only settlement in the entire northern part of the State. After the defeat of the Indians by Wayne the settlers had comparative peace for a few years, but every once in awhile predatory bands of Indians would suddenly slip down on some isolated settler, steal his stock and perhaps murder him and his family.

The whites were not contented with the lands opened up for settlement, and were continually encroaching on those reserved to the Indians. This was a source of perpetual trouble. The Indians vigorously protested, and other treaties were made, each one ceding more land. Against these cessions Tecumseh, as the representative of the Shawnees, strenuously objected, and endeavored to arouse the Delawares and Pottawattamies. At first the Miamis had claimed all the country now lying within the bounds of Indiana, and most of that in Ohio. They had permitted the Shawnees, Delawares and Pottawattamies to settle on different portions of it, and now Tecumseh set up the claim that the Miamis could not cede any of the territory without the consent of all the other tribes. In these efforts to stir up hostilities he was assisted by his brother, the Prophet, and it was not long before depredations became numerous. Governor Harrison made every effort to maintain the peace, but finally active hostilities broke out, and from 1810 until after the close of the war with Great Brit-

ain the settlers had little peace. During all those years the hardy settler who did not actually live in some one of the small towns, never felt safe unless his trusty rifle was close by him, and he went to his field with his gun in his hand. Even the pioneer preachers, who traveled about from one settlement to another, often carried rifles on their shoulders.

Those early settlers were industrious, hard-working people, and while seeking homes for themselves little dreamed they were laying broad and deep the foundations of an empire. After the close of the war with Great Britain the new country rapidly filled up. The pioneers brought little with them into the new country except their physical strength, courage and honest purposes. They were not rich in worldly effects. A horse, a yoke of cattle, a sheep or two, usually made up the list of their possessions outside of a few household goods of the most primitive kind. They would select the land for their future home, erect a rude log cabin, and begin the work of clearing the land of timber, ready for the seed time and harvest. Most of the families had a few shoemakers' tools, a wheel for spinning flax, some scraps of iron to be used in a domestic blacksmith shop, and a few rude agricultural implements. They were all hunters and trappers. Farming was limited to raising wheat and corn for food, and flax for clothing. The farmer frequently made his own hoes, horseshoes, and sometimes his plows. This work would be done at night or on rainy days, when he could not work in his clearing or in attending to his crop. At night he would also make the shoes for himself and his family, while the women would spin the flax, or the wool, weave the cloth and make the clothing. The corn, when gathered, would be made into hominy, ground into meal in the rude mills, or kept for the use of the stock. Sassafras and spicewood furnished the tea, and rye or parched corn the coffee. Salt was a luxury hard to obtain. Sugar generally came from the sap of the maple, and sugar-making time was usually a season of festivity.

When a settler came into a neighborhood he was always kindly greeted, and when he had chosen the spot for the erection of his home, and had cut the timber ready

for the building of his house, the people for miles around would gather and soon have his house erected and covered. Windows were unknown. During the day the door would be kept open for light, and at night the great open fireplace would furnish light to work by. In summer, when it was too warm for a fire, the light was obtained from rude candles, or from lamps made by dividing a large turnip into halves, scraping the turnip until only the rind remained, and then filling that with lard, the wick being furnished by a piece of tow linen or flannel wrapped around a stick. By such a light the men and women worked. Books and papers they had none. When the pioneer was able to get together a few peltries, he would put them on his horse and start for the distant settlement (there were no towns in those days), and there exchange them for some of the necessities of life. Inside the home the furnishings were as rude as the outside. Generally the bedstead consisted of four poles, with a fork at one end, driven into the ground. On these four uprights other poles were laid, and on that the "strawtick." Here and there would be found a good housewife, much richer than her neighbors, who could boast of a feather pillow. She was the envy of all her neighbors, and was looked up to as being in a higher sphere of life. Her wealth made her the oracle of the neighborhood, and the leader in all social affairs.

The people did not suffer for food, for game of all kinds was abundant, and wild grapes, wild plums, blackberries and pawpaws were found everywhere. Their wants were few and simple, and those the toil of their own hands or the chase supplied. Linsey was the material out of which the "best dress" of the women was made, while buckskin gave the men trousers which lasted for more than one season. Nor were they wholly without amusements. Shooting at a mark, hunting, fishing, trapping, running foot races, wrestling, jumping, pitching quoits, horse racing, dancing, singing schools, log rollings, house raisings, corn huskings, and quiltings furnished a variety of amusements. Weddings were great occasions, and when an itinerant preacher would make his appearance the people for miles would gather to listen to the story of the cross.

Even in 1816, when Indiana was admitted into the

Union as a State, by far the greater part of the State still belonged to the Indians. The accompanying map will show how little of it had been ceded by the Indians, but after the admission of the State, treaties were rapidly concluded by which the area of the territory open for settlement was largely increased. Indian depredations did not wholly cease until some years after Indiana had been admitted into the Union, but there were no Indian wars within her borders.

CHAPTER IV.

THE CAPTURE OF VINCENNES.

Few, if any events in American history have had a wider or more lasting influence on the country than the capture of Vincennes, in 1779. It was one of the heroic deeds of the War for Independence, and worthy to rank with the fabled actions of the days of chivalry. Vincennes was a post originally established by the French to repel aggressions of the English colonists in the Ohio Valley, then claimed by France. It was not a frontier settlement, but was hundreds of miles farther in the wilderness than the frontiers. It was an outpost, a sort of picket, as it were, a base of operations from which the French could act against any trading post established by the colonists west of the Alleghany Mountains. By the treaty of 1763 it had been transferred to Great Britain, but the London Government paid little attention to it until the colonies began to struggle for liberty. Kentucky was then the frontier province of Virginia, and was subject to frequent irruptions of Indians from north of the Ohio. The British Governor of Canada thought a good way to annoy Virginia was to keep the Indians stirred up to hostilities against the white settlers of Kentucky. The British then held three posts in the territory ceded by France by the treaty of 1763—Detroit, Vincennes and Kaskaskia.

From these posts agents were sent out among the Indian tribes in Ohio, Indiana and Illinois to induce them to war against the Americans in Kentucky. Rewards were paid for prisoners or scalps. At that time among the leading citizens of Kentucky was George Rogers Clark, then

but twenty-seven years of age. Young as he was, he had impressed himself upon the hardy pioneers as a man of dauntless courage, indomitable will and great energy. He had led an expedition or two against the hostile Indians with marked success. He was a member of a family noted for courage and address in Virginia. Several of them were serving with distinction in the armies under Washington. George Rogers had cast in his fortunes with the settlers of Kentucky. He was a statesman as well as a soldier. He believed that the best way to defend the people of Kentucky from the Indians was to capture the British posts north of the Ohio River. To impress that idea upon the Virginia authorities he made a trip to Williamsburg and conferred with Governor Patrick Henry. Clark urged that if the posts named were captured and held by a small force the various Indian tribes could be overawed and thus prevented from making incursions into Kentucky, and that the British agents could be driven from among them.

Governor Henry was disposed to look upon the scheme as chimerical, and at first would give it no encouragement. Clark became aroused and urged the project with earnestness, but to no avail. At that time there was considerable dissatisfaction existing in Kentucky at the neglect of Virginia, and there had already been some talk of Kentucky throwing in its fortunes with Spain, that country controlling the Mississippi River, Kentucky's natural and best outlet to the sea. Spanish agents had been among the people, and as Virginia, with the other colonies, was engaged in a life and death struggle with the mother country, it was thought to be a good time for Kentucky to sever her connection with Virginia and look out for her own interests. All this was known to Governor Henry. Clark, upon leaving the Governor, after a protracted interview, gave utterance to the significant remark that "a country that was not worth defending was not worth possessing." This remark led the Governor to fear that if Virginia continued to refuse the aid asked for, Kentucky would throw itself under the protection of Spain. He at once called together some of his counsellors, and then sent for Clark. The result was that Clark was given a small amount of Virginia

money, an order for some ammunition, and a commission to raise three hundred and fifty volunteers with whom to capture and hold Kaskaskia, Vincennes and Detroit. The public authorization given him was simply to raise seven companies to operate under his orders, without stating the object. No mention was made of the British posts, but the Governor gave him the following secret instructions:

“You are to proceed with all convenient speed to raise Seven Companies of Soldiers, to consist of fifty-nine men each, officered in the usual manner and armed most properly for the Enterprise and with this force attack the British post at Kaskasky.

“It is conjectured that there are many pieces of Cannon & military stores to considerable amount at that place, the taking & preservation of which would be a valuable acquisition to the State. If you are so fortunate therefore as to succeed in your Expectation, you will take every possible measure to secure the artillery & stores & whatever may advantage the State.

“For the transportation of the Troops, provisions, &c., down the Ohio, you are to apply to the Commanding officer at Fort pitt for Boats, and during the whole Transaction you are to take especial Care to keep the true Destination of your Force secret. Its Success depends upon this. Orders are therefore given to Capt. Smith to secure the two men from Kaskasky. Similar conduct will be proper in similar cases. It is earnestly desired that you show Humanity to such British subjects and other persons as fall in your hands. If the white Inhabitants at that post & the neighborhood will give undoubted Evidence of their attachment to this State (for it is certain they live within its limits) by taking the oath provided by same, & by every other way & means in their power. Let them be treated as fellow Citizens & their persons & property duly secured assistance & protection against all Enemies whatever shall be afforded them & the Commonwealth of Virginia is pledged to accomplish it; but if those people will not accede to these reasonable demands, they must feel the measures of war under the direction of that Humanity that has hitherto distinguished Americans & which it is

expected you will ever consider as the Rule of your Conduct & from which you are to in no Instance to Depart.

"The Corps you are to command are to receive the pay & allowance of Militia & to act under the Laws & Regulations of this State now in Force. The inhabitants at this Post will be informed by you that in Case that they accede to the offer of becoming Citizens of this Commonwealth a proper garrison will be maintained among them & every attention bestowed to render their Commerce beneficial, the fairest prospects being opened to the Dominions of both France & Spain.

"It is in Contemplation to establish a post near the mouth of Ohio. Cannon will be wanted to fortify it. Part of those at Kaskasky will be easily brought thither or otherwise secured as circumstances will make necessary.

"You are to apply to General Hand for powder & lead necessary for this Expedition. If he can not supply it the person who has that which Capt. Lynn bro't from Orleans can. Lead was sent to Hampshire by my orders & that may be delivered to you."

Clark was highly elated over his success with the Governor, and hastened to Kentucky to raise the requisite force. He succeeded in enlisting more than three hundred men without telling them anything more than that they were to be employed against the Indians. The rendezvous was on Corn Island, an island in the Ohio opposite the present site of Louisville. Only about two hundred of the men who had been promised him appeared at the rendezvous, and of these some twenty-five or thirty deserted when the real object of the expedition was announced. It was a perilous undertaking for so small a force to go so far into an enemy's country, to meet they knew not how many foes. Beside the British troops, they might expect to meet the Indian tribes who were allies of the British, and especially hostile to the Kentuckians who had occupied their favorite hunting grounds. But Clark was not to be deterred. He boldly assumed all the perils, and in a little while had his one hundred and seventy men as enthusiastic as himself. On the morning of June 24, 1778, Clark and his little band embarked in boats and began their voyage down the river. The voyage was begun while the sun was undergoing an al-

most total eclipse. Clark's original intention was to attack Vincennes first, but he was informed that at that post there were about four hundred British soldiers and militia, besides a large number of Indians, and he changed his plan and proceeded at once against Kaskaskia. He pushed forward day and night for four days, when he arrived at the mouth of the Tennessee River, where he landed upon a small island. He there met a party of hunters who had lately left Kaskaskia, and they gave him much valuable information as to the condition of affairs at that place. One of the hunting party volunteered to guide the expedition.

The men now had a march of about one hundred and twenty miles to make through a wilderness, and much of it over low and swampy lands. On the evening of July 4 they reached a point about three miles from Kaskaskia, with a river between them and the town. They marched that night to a point about a mile above the town and there found boats, in which they crossed the river. The garrison was not on its guard and Clark was able to enter the town and capture the commander of the Post. Clark found the French inhabitants willing to take the oath of allegiance, especially as the priest told them that France was now the ally of the Colonies. As important as was this capture of Kaskaskia it was not so important as that of Vincennes, which yet remained to be made.

Clark felt that to attempt the capture of Vincennes at that time, would only be to invite the destruction of his little party. He was anxious to obtain reliable information as to the exact condition of affairs at that point, and Father Gibault, the priest of Kaskaskia, offered to go to Vincennes and secure all the information needed. He also informed Clark that he might rely upon the good will of the French at Vincennes, as upon that of those at Kaskaskia. Father Gibault at once proceeded on his journey, but before doing so all the inhabitants of Kaskaskia were assembled at the church and there took the oath of allegiance to Virginia. While Gibault was absent on his mission Clark sent out small detachments to the other French villages in Illinois. Father Gibault found, on arriving at Vincennes, that the British had left there some time before, without leaving a garrison in the fort. Father Gibault ex-

plained to the French inhabitants his mission and they at once went to the church in a body and there took the oath of allegiance to Virginia. They took possession of the fort and raised the American flag. Father Gibault went at once among the Indians and told them that their "Great French Father," who had always been so kind to them, was now the friend of the Americans and would be very angry with them if they continued to war with the Colonists. They promised to bury the hatchet and smoke the pipe of peace.

News of this great success was at once sent to Clark. He had no soldiers to spare to garrison the fort, but he had one man, and he proved to be the right man in the right place, so he sent Captain Leonard Helm with full powers to treat with the Indians. Helm was a man of great courage, and well understood the Indian nature. Clark was not the only one who heard of this success of the Americans, but word was speedily carried to Colonel Hamilton, Lieutenant-Governor at Detroit. He immediately began preparing not only to retake Vincennes, but to capture Clark at Kaskaskia. He gathered about five hundred militia and Indians and began his march. He approached within three miles of Vincennes before Helm heard of the movement. Helm, as garrison of the fort, had one American and several of the residents of Vincennes. As there was no possibility of defending the fort against the force of Hamilton, Helm advised the native part of the garrison to go to their own homes. With this one American he took his place in the fort, loaded the cannon and prepared to make the best defense he could. Hamilton, on approaching, sent in a demand for a surrender. Helm replied that he would not surrender without knowing the terms, and that until such terms were declared no man should approach the fort without being shot. This boldness led Hamilton to believe that a considerable garrison was behind the works, so he replied that the garrison should receive the honors of war. On this Helm and his one man surrendered. Hamilton was greatly chagrined when he found how he had been defied. The British flag was once more raised.

So sudden had been the approach of Hamilton that

Helm had had no time to dispatch a courier to Clark. The last word he had sent to Clark was asking for supplies for his garrison. At the time that message was received Francis Vigo, a merchant of St. Louis, happened to be at Kaskaskia. Vigo was a Frenchman, but had served in the Spanish army. He was a friend of the Americans and hated the British. Clark had no money, and no means with which to supply the garrison. Vigo volunteered to go to Vincennes and furnish the garrison with whatever supplies were needed. With two companions he at once departed on his mission. He arrived in the vicinity of Vincennes the day after the capture of the Fort by Hamilton. He was arrested and taken before that officer, who threatened to put him in irons. Vigo demanded his release, claiming that he was a Spanish citizen, but Hamilton would not listen to him. At last Father Gibault, at the head of some of the most prominent citizens of the place, called upon Hamilton and notified him that the people would furnish no more supplies for his troops until Vigo was released. After extorting from Vigo an oath "that on his way to St. Louis he would do no act of hostility to the British," Hamilton gave him his liberty.

Vigo at once took a canoe, and with two companions, rowed rapidly to the mouth of the Wabash and then on to St. Louis. Keeping the strict letter of his oath he did no act of hostility on his way, but arriving at St. Louis, he jumped from his boat to the land and then back to the boat and hastened to Kaskaskia, where he quickly informed Clark of the change in the situation. Clark was now in desperate straits. It was the middle of winter and the term of enlistment of his troops had nearly expired. He could obtain no reinforcements short of Virginia, and possibly not there. If he waited until spring Hamilton would be largely reinforced and drive him from Kaskaskia, and thus his whole enterprise would be ruined. Clark was one of those men who always act best in desperate emergencies. They seemed to bring out his best powers. He reasoned that Hamilton would not be expecting him to make a winter campaign, and hence would be less watchful. By large promises he persuaded the most of his little band to volunteer for eight months longer, and then added to

their number a few volunteers from among the citizens of Kaskaskia. With this little band of one hundred and seventy he prepared to make one of the most wonderful marches of modern times, a march that changed the whole geography of the United States, and added an empire to its domain.

His little band was made up of hardy backwoodsmen, and every man was a hero. He soon had the little band filled with his own determination to bear all hardships and encounter all dangers to the successful conclusion of the enterprise in which they were engaged. A small part of his force he sent in boats by water, conveying supplies of ammunition and provisions, to meet him on the Wabash a short distance below Vincennes. He had no tents, and had he possessed them had no means of transportation. Two or three pack horses were procured to convey what provisions and supplies the men could not carry on their backs.

While Clark was thus preparing for a winter campaign, and to surprise the British, Hamilton was strengthening the fort and making preparations to proceed against Clark in the spring. He was a harsh and tyrannical man. His manners were overbearing and it was not long until every inhabitant of the little town was his enemy, and eager to welcome the return of the Americans. He had dismissed his Indian allies, but deemed his force of white soldiers large enough to secure him from all danger. On the 5th of February, 1779, Clark was ready to begin his perilous march. His little band was drawn up and the good Catholic priest pronounced a blessing, when, accompanied by all the inhabitants of the village, the march began. The villagers accompanied the soldiers some three or four miles on their way and then bade them farewell. The distance between Kaskaskia and Vincennes was about two hundred and twenty miles. It was nearly all the way low and flat, and during the rainy seasons usually covered with water to a considerable depth. Almost as soon as the march began the rain commenced to fall, and continued for twenty days, with but slight intermissions. The march for the first day had not been concluded when they struck the overflowed land, and from that time until they reached Vin-

canoes their way was through water, which sometimes reached the shoulders of the men.

On the 13th the little army arrived at the Little Wabash. The whole country was overflowed, and the two rivers really formed one. Here canoes were built. The nights were cold, and each morning the men found the water covered with a coating of ice through which they had to break their way. It was a terrible march. Sometimes the men had to stand in water all night long, as no dry place on which to camp could be found. When they were lucky enough to find a few acres above the water it was seldom they could procure fuel for fire and thus they often had to remain in their wet clothing all night. Arriving at the banks of the Little Wabash, they formed a camp. Of this part of the journey Clark, in his journal, said:

"I viewed this sheet of water some time with distrust; but accusing myself of doubting, I immediately set to work, without holding any consultation about it, or suffering anybody else to do so in my presence; ordered a pirogue to be built immediately, and acted as though crossing the water would only be a piece of diversion. As few could work at the pirogue at a time, pains were taken to find diversion for the rest to keep them in high spirits. . . . In the evening of the 14th, our vessel was finished, manned and sent to explore the drowned lands on the opposite side of the Little Wabash, with private instructions what report to make, and, if possible, to find some spot of dry land. They found about half an acre, and marked the trees from thence back to camp, and made a very favorable report. Fortunately the 15th happened to be a warm, moist day for the season, and the channel of the river where we lay about thirty yards wide. A scaffold was built on the opposite shore that was about three feet under water; our baggage ferried across, and put on it. Our horses swam across and received their loads at the scaffold, by which time the troops were brought across, and we began our march. Our vessel was loaded with those who were sickly, and we moved on cheerfully, every moment expecting to see dry land, which was not discovered until we came to the little dry spot mentioned."

For the next few days such passages as the following

are found in his journal: "Marched all day through rain and water." "Found the country all overflowed with water." "Traveled until eight o'clock in mud and water but could find no place to encamp on. Still kept marching." "Found a small spot of ground, and staid there the remainder of the night." At break of day on the 18th they were close enough to Vincennes to hear the morning gun in the fort. They had reached the Wabash, but could they cross in its flooded condition? A raft was made and four men were sent with orders to go to the town and steal boats, but they passed the day and night in the water to no purpose. They spent the night on some logs in the water. The boat Clark had sent around by water, owing to unexpected difficulties, had failed to reach him, and by the 19th the men were out of provisions. They had had little to eat for two days. Clark put the men at work making canoes with which to cross the river. On the evening of the 20th one of the men killed a deer and there was great rejoicing, although it was not much among one hundred and thirty men. On the 21st they crossed the river in the canoes that had been made. It rained all day and the men waded through water nearly up to their necks. They were out of provisions and could find no dry place on which to camp, but the men maintained their spirits. At one place there was nothing but a wide expanse of water, and it was covered with floating ice. The men were weary, hungry and cold. They hesitated about plunging into this water, as its depth was unknown. Among the troops was a little fourteen-year-old drummer boy, and a sergeant of gigantic stature. Clark put the little drummer on the shoulders of the giant sergeant, who at once plunged into the water, the little drummer beating the charge. Clark shouted, "Forward," and followed the drummer. There was no longer any hesitation among the men.

On the 23d, about one o'clock, they came in sight of the town and halted on a small hill. There they captured a couple of Indians who had the half of a buffalo rump. This was confiscated and made into a broth for the starving men. That afternoon the weather cleared up, which encouraged the men greatly, as it was the first real sunshine they had seen for nearly twenty days. That evening they

moved up to the front of the town. They managed to take a Frenchman prisoner who at once gave Clark valuable information about the condition of the fort. By the hands of this Frenchman Clark sent to the people of the town the following letter:

"To the Inhabitants of Post Vincennes:

"Gentlemen:—Being now within two miles of your village with my army, determined to take your fort this night, and not being willing to surprise you, I take this method to request such of you as are true citizens, and willing to enjoy the liberty I bring you, to remain still in your houses—and those, if any there be, that are friends to the King, will instantly repair to the fort and join the hair-buying* general, and fight like men. And if any such as do not go into the fort shall be discovered afterward, they may depend upon severe punishment. On the contrary, those who are true friends of liberty may depend upon being well treated; and I once more request them to keep out of the streets. For every one I find in arms on my arrival, I shall treat him as an enemy."

This letter was taken immediately to the town, and, strange to say, while every inhabitant knew its contents in a very short time, not a whisper of Clark's presence reached the fort. The people at once gathered food and sent an abundance of it to the Americans. As soon as it was dark the Americans moved rapidly into the town. A small party was detached to open fire on the fort. This was the first intimation Colonel Hamilton had of the presence of the Americans. It was said that he was engaged in a game of cards with his prisoner, Captain Helm, when the firing began, and remarked that it was a returning party of Indians. Helm replied that it was General Clark and that he would have Hamilton a prisoner before morning. Clark had but little ammunition, as most of his supply had been sent by the boat and that had not arrived. When Hamilton had captured the fort from Helm, many of the French inhabitants had buried their powder and lead. This was instantly produced and given to Clark. The firing on

*Hamilton was called, by the Americans, the "hair-buying" General, because he had offered the Indians a price for scalps.

the fort was kept up until about nine o'clock the next morning, when Clark sent the following communication to Hamilton:

"Sir:—In order to save yourself from the impending storm that now threatens you, I order you to immediately surrender yourself, with all your garrison, stores, etc., etc. For, if I am obliged to storm, you may depend upon the treatment justly due a murderer. Beware of destroying stores of any kind, or any papers or letters that are in your possession, or hurting one house in town, for, by heaven, if you do, there shall be no mercy shown you."

Hamilton declined to surrender and the firing recommenced and soon grew hot on both sides. This was continued for some time when Hamilton called a parley and asked what terms would be granted the garrison. The American commander replied that no terms would be given except that Hamilton and his garrison surrender as prisoners of war at discretion, but offered, if Hamilton so desired, to hold a conference with him. A conference was held at the church. The conference was rather a stormy one and no conclusion was reached, and the two officers separated. It was not long, however, before Hamilton reconsidered the matter, and that afternoon the fort was surrendered. Clark did not at once raise the American flag, as he had received information that one or two small bodies of Indians who had been out on forays against the whites of Kentucky were expected on their return. To decoy them into the village he left the British flag flying. Sure enough, within a few hours one of the bands returned, bringing with them several scalps. They came with exultant shouts, and were received by a volley from the Americans and several of them were killed. The British prisoners were sent to Virginia. Among the papers found in the fort was one which gave information that reinforcements, bringing supplies, were on their way down the Wabash. Clark at once sent out a detachment to capture the boats, which was successfully accomplished.

When General Clark raised the American flag over Fort Sackville he bodily lifted the western boundary of the United Colonies from the Alleghany Mountains and placed it permanently on the eastern bank of the Missis-

ssippi river. Had it not been for that capture, at the treaty of peace Great Britain would have claimed all the territory northwest of the Ohio. In fact it was so claimed, but the American commissioners contended it belonged to the colonies by right of conquest. Thus an empire was added to the domain of the United States. Nor was this all. Having the territory to the eastern bank of the Mississippi gave President Jefferson the opportunity to buy Louisiana from the French, thus giving the United States full control of the Mississippi River. The Louisiana Purchase made possible that of New Mexico and California, thus extending our possessions to the Pacific. Thus George Rogers Clark extended American institutions, American liberty, American progressiveness, from the Alleghany Mountains to the Pacific Ocean.

So much were the Indians impressed with the superior powers of Clark, that the Piankashaws insisted on making him a grant of 150,000 acres of land at the Falls of the Ohio. He at first refused but finally accepted it. The grant was afterward confirmed by Virginia, and the land was divided among those taking part in the expedition, in the following ratio: Brigadier-General, 8,049 acres; Lieutenant-Colonel, 4,851 acres; Majors, 4,312 acres; Captains, 3,324 acres; Lieutenants, 2,156 acres; Sergeants, 216 acres; Ensigns, 2,156 acres; Cornet, 2,156 acres; privates, 108 acres. This grant is located in what are now Floyd, Clark and Scott counties, and goes by the name of "Clark's Grant" to this day. The name of the fort at Vincennes was changed from "Fort Sackville" to "Fort Patrick Henry," after the Governor of Virginia who had authorized the expedition. Clark took possession of the whole territory in the name of Virginia. In October, 1778, when the news of Clark's success at Kaskaskia reached Virginia, the Virginia Assembly passed a law organizing all the territory northwest of the Ohio into the County of Illinois, and Colonel John Todd was appointed County Lieutenant of Illinois, and instructed to give every assistance in his power to General Clark in his proposed operations against Detroit.

Todd arrived at Kaskaskia in May, 1779, and at once assumed the duties of his office, leaving Clark free to pursue his military enterprises. Todd was killed at the bat-

tle of Blue Licks, in 1782. By the limitations of the statute establishing the County of Illinois, its organization expired in 1781, but the officers under that organization continued to exercise power, and among other things made liberal grants of lands, especially to themselves. The Indians had granted to the French twenty-four leagues square of land, and when the British captured the country it was held that the grant had been made to the French crown, and not to the people of Vincennes, and hence passed to the British crown. This view of the question was held by those who exercised power under the authority of Virginia, and it was this grant which the officers parcelled out to themselves. The United States repudiated their action and resumed ownership of the land.

Before tracing the further history of the early settlement of Indiana, it will be proper here to follow the career of General Clark to the end, as he was so closely identified with, and so important a part of the early history of this State. During his campaign against the British and Indians at Kaskaskia and Vincennes, he had met with and overcome obstacles that would have dampened the spirit of almost any other man. He had not succeeded in his great design—the capture of Detroit—but he did not relinquish that object, and as soon as he could get matters settled at Vincennes, turned his attention again to it.

No opportunity offered, however, and no means were given him to prosecute the design. He returned to Kentucky. He was a bold, restless, active man, who could not be content except in action. He had not been long in Kentucky when word was brought that the British and Indians from Detroit had been on a marauding expedition against the American settlements on the Miamis. Clark organized a force and severely punished the Indians, destroying some of their towns and all of their crops. Returning again to Kentucky, he began once more agitating an attempt upon Detroit, but by this time his habits of dissipation had so grown upon him that he could not gain the support of the Executive Council of Virginia.

In 1785 Indian depredations had become so frequent and so destructive, that the people of Kentucky felt it was necessary to take some decided steps. Information

was received that Vincennes had been attacked and the American residents all destroyed. The Virginia Council authorized the raising of troops in Kentucky for service on the Wabash, and the field officers selected Clark for the command. He raised about 1000 men, and in September of that year started from the Falls of the Ohio on a march to Vincennes. After proceeding some distance he sent Captain Benjamin Logan back to Kentucky, to raise an additional force for service against the Indian towns on the Miami. No supplies had been furnished Clark for his troops, and it was not long until great dissatisfaction sprang up among them. The provisions had been sent by boat to Vincennes, but had been delayed. Clark's habits added to the dissatisfaction, and his followers began to lose confidence in him. He reached Vincennes, and at last the boats with his provisions came up, but most of the supplies had been ruined by water. Clark was reinforced by the inhabitants of Vincennes and marched for the Vermillion River. At that point his troops mutinied, and three hundred of them left in a body.

This put an end to the expedition, and he returned to Vincennes, a soured and disappointed man. Upon arriving again at that place the Kentucky officers, who were with him, decided that the safety of Kentucky depended upon garrisoning the fort again, the supplies to be furnished by impressment. Clark appointed officers for the garrison, and the people were called upon for supplies. The goods in some of the stores were seized. Among the stores thus sacked were two which belonged to Spaniards who were residents of St. Louis. Charges were afterward made against Clark on this account, and he was accused of having a design to embroil the country in a war with Spain. At a later period he was charged with having a design to attack Natchez, much after the manner Aaron Burr was accused of contemplating the seizure of New Orleans some years later.

After the failure of his last expedition against the Indians of the Wabash, Clark lived in retirement. Both Virginia and the United States refused to pay for the goods impressed at Vincennes, although the act was one in every

way justifiable from the exigencies of the service. The merchants brought suit against Clark, and recovered judgments. Under the judgments much of the land given him by the Government was sold. He lived in comparative poverty, feeling that his country had not only failed to reward him as it should have done for his valuable services, but had neglected to refund him the money he had actually expended. He built himself a cabin on Corn Island and lived there alone for some years, in poverty, sickness and neglect. Finally he was taken to the home of his sister, near Louisville, and cared for until his death in 1818.

Before leaving this subject, it will be well to glance at some other acts of gross injustice perpetrated by Virginia and the United States upon some of those who had served them well, and to whose help the country owed the capture and retention of the vast empire now known as Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin. It will be remembered that when General Clark arrived at Kaskaskia he found there Father Gibault, a parish priest, and that the Father was Clark's earliest and best friend, and staunchest adviser and assistant. He not only won over the French residents of the village, but, at the instigation of General Clark, went to Vincennes and there induced the French residents to take the oath of allegiance to the American government, and by his influence prevailed upon the Indian tribes to make peace and forsake the British.

He was still at Vincennes when Clark reached that point after it had been recaptured by Hamilton, and he was again of the greatest assistance. For his services to the Americans he was excommunicated by the Bishop of Detroit, and deprived of his pastorate. When General St. Clair appeared at Vincennes as Governor of the Northwest, Father Gibault presented a memorial to him, setting forth that he had "parted with his tithes and beasts" to aid General Clark, and had been paid in depreciated currency, which he had sent to the United States Commissioner for redemption, but had never heard from it afterward. He set forth that because of this loss he had been compelled to sell two slaves who would have been a support to his old age, and that he was then dependent upon the public. He asked that a small tract of land at Kaskaskia, which had

been formerly held by the parish priests, he returned to him. Governor St. Clair recommended that this be done, but it never was. Finally, after several years, a small lot was given him in Vincennes, and subsequent to that, he was allowed four hundred acres of land, but the old man had parted with his claim for a trifle, and this act of tardy justice did him no good.

Upon General Clark's arrival at Kaskaskia, on his first expedition, his troops were entirely out of supplies. He was out of money as well. Without help his attempt against Vincennes must be abandoned. The French merchants of Kaskaskia came patriotically to his help, and furnished him with whatever was needed. He gave them bills on Virginia. Virginia took no steps toward honoring the bills, and in 1780 Charles Gratiot, on his own behalf and as agent for some of the others, visited Virginia. He remained there three years before he could get his claims allowed. Many of the other claims were never presented, owing to the discouragements Gratiot had met with.

Among the friends who had come to the help of Clark was Francis Vigo. He not only furnished Clark with supplies and money, but, it will be remembered, went to Vincennes on a secret mission, and was captured by the British and held a prisoner until Father Gibault forced his release. Clark gave him drafts on the agent of Virginia, but they were not paid for the want of funds. Vigo was rich at that time and cared nothing for the money. After a while poverty overtook him, and he sold some of the smaller drafts at eighty per cent. discount. He kept the largest one, however. He gave the draft to some attorneys for presentation. The draft was lost in some way, and nothing was done toward securing payment for many years. In 1799 he had an attack of sickness which confined him to the house for five years, and during that time his business was entirely destroyed, and he fell into extreme poverty. In 1833 some papers were discovered proving his claim, and it was once more pressed upon Congress, but he died three years afterward at the age of ninety-six.

Vigo County had been named in his honor, and at one time Terre Haute had given him a very flattering public

reception. In memory of that kind act, in his will he directed that when his claim should be allowed, the sum of \$500 should be given to purchase a bell for the court house at Terre Haute. His heirs pushed the claim, and time after time committees of one House or the other recommended its payment, but it always fell somewhere. Two or three generations of lawyers wore themselves out on it. In 1872, Congress referred the matter to the Court of Claims. The Court gave judgment for the heirs, allowing interest at the rate of five per cent. The Government appealed against the allowance of interest, but finally the Supreme Court affirmed the judgment, and ninety-five years after the debt was incurred it was paid.

CHAPTER V.

INDIAN WARS AND MASSACRES.

When the whites began making their settlements in Kentucky, the Indians of Ohio and Indiana, who had long looked upon Kentucky as a sort of general hunting ground, resisted the invasion to the very utmost, and many bloody forays were made. The Ohio River, which was the great thoroughfare down which the immigrants floated, was carefully patrolled by the savages, and there is hardly a mile of it, from Pittsburg to the Falls, that has not at some time witnessed a deadly conflict. It is not our purpose to give an account of the Indian wars of the country, or to even allude to them, and we shall mention only those which had a direct bearing upon the settlement of Indiana. When the whites began breaking over the Alleghany Mountains and hunting homes in this great section of the country, several Indian tribes had their villages within the borders of Indiana. They displayed a determined hostility to the encroachments of the whites, and in this were encouraged by the French, who looked with jealous alarm on the advancement of the English frontiers. As soon as the whites grew strong enough in Kentucky to make counter-charges on the Indians, several expeditions against the Indian towns in Ohio and Indiana were made, which, in the main, were disastrous to the whites. —

Soon after this territory was ceded by France to England, a great Indian war broke out. It had been smouldering for some time, and the insidious work of the French emissaries soon set it in a blaze. The Indians were impressed with the belief that the British Government

claimed that the cession by France conveyed all the land contained in the territory, without regard to the rights of the Indian possessors, and that the Indians were to be driven from their homes. The former action of the English settlers in the East gave color to this belief, and it was not to be wondered at that the Indians readily accepted the statements of the French traders. Pontiac was the head chief of the Ottawas, and was a man of bold and determined spirit. He had always been hostile to the English, and took quick advantage of the restlessness of the different tribes, and by his eloquence united them in a movement to annihilate the dreaded English settlers, and to seize upon all their posts. He displayed wonderful cunning in making up and working out his plans. During 1762 he was very active in going from one tribe to another, fostering their spirit of opposition, and inflaming their passions. His plan covered a wide field, and was to be a surprise along the whole western frontier, in which all the posts were to be surprised and captured on the same day, while roving bands were to attack the isolated settlements and kill and scalp. The forts were to be captured by stratagem. In no case was it contemplated to attempt an assault or a siege. Cunning, not force, was to be the weapon employed. Notwithstanding the secrecy with which this conspiracy was being worked, rumors of it from time to time reached the ears of the commanding officers of the various posts. In Indiana, the only two posts occupied by the British were Fort Miamis, at the head of the Maumee, and Ouiatenon, on the Wabash. Vincennes was still in the hands of the French. The commander of Fort Miamis obtained information that war belts were being circulated among the Indians, and that they were secretly, but actively, preparing for a general outbreak. The conspiracy included in its ranks all the tribes of the Algonquin family, with the Senecas and Wyandots, and many of the tribes of the lower Mississippi. Early in March, 1763, Ensign Holmes, who was in command of the little force at Fort Miamis, received information that trouble was brewing. A friendly Indian told him that one of the tribes near by had received a war belt, and that they were preparing to secretly seize the fort and destroy the garrison. Holmes immediately sum-

moned the neighboring Indians to a council, and at once charged them with their contemplated treachery. They acknowledged having received the war belt. They denied, however, that they intended to lift the tomahawk, and surrendered the war belt to Holmes. Holmes was not entirely satisfied with their protestations, but still thought the danger had passed. A day or two later he dispatched the following letter to Major Gladwyn, the commander at Detroit:

“FORT MIAMIS, March 30, 1763.

“Since my Last Letter to You wherein I Acquainted You of the Bloody Belt being in this village, I have made all the search I could about it, and have found it out to be True; Whereon I Assembled all the Chiefs of this Nation (the Miamis), and after a long and troublesome Spell with them, I Obtained the Belt, with a Speech, as you will Receive Enclosed; This Affair is very timely Stopt, and I hope the News of a Peace will put a Stop to any further troubles with these Indians, who are the Principle Ones of Setting Mischief on Foot. I send You the Belt with this Packet, which I hope You will Forward to the General.”

To lull the suspicions of the whites until their designs were ripe for consummation, the Indians began hanging around the various forts with all demonstrations of friendliness, and asking for tobacco, whisky and powder. Notwithstanding these pretenses the rumors of coming trouble multiplied. The Indians of the various tribes began to assemble in unusual numbers, to celebrate the savage rites of war. A grand council was called at the river Ecorces, where Pontiac delivered one of his impassioned speeches. He recited the wrongs the Indians had suffered at the hands of the English. He contrasted the conduct of the French and the English in their dealings with them. He declared that it was the aim and intention of the hated English to drive the Indians from their land, if not to utterly destroy them. He told them that their great French Father had been asleep, but was now awake again, and would soon have possession of Canada once more; that if the Red Men waited much longer the English would be too strong for them, but they were now resting in security because they had beaten the French, and if the Indians were

prompt to take advantage of this want of caution on the part of their enemies, they could capture all the forts and destroy all the settlements.

It was planned to capture nine posts held by the English—Detroit, Presque-Isle, Michillimackinac, Miamis, Ouiatenon, Le Boeuf, Venango, Fort Pitt and Fort Saunders. All were to be taken by treachery or stratagem. All fell except Detroit and Fort Pitt. On the 10th of May, Sandusky fell. Rapidly, one after another, the various posts fell into the hands of the savages. With the exception of Michillimackinac they were all small trading posts, with but slight fortifications. At Michillimackinac strategy was resorted to. Major Herington, the commandant, had been notified of the disaffection of the Indians, and the danger of an attack, but paid no attention to the warnings. On the 4th of June the Sacs and Foxes, to whom the capture of this post had been assigned in the distribution of the work of the conspiracy, gathered around the fort. It was the birthday of George III., and the small garrison of ninety men was celebrating the day. The Indians began amusing themselves by playing "baggatiway," a favorite game of ball, in the area close to the fort. The Indians played with great animation, and many soldiers of the garrison went out to observe the game, having no suspicions of hostilities. Several times the ball was knocked or thrown over the pickets of the stockade, and was followed by the ardent players, who would rush into the enclosure, capture the ball and return again to their sport. Finally, at a given signal, they again rushed in after the ball, and when inside the stockade made a furious attack on the soldiers of the garrison, killing seventy of them.

At Ouiatenon, on the Wabash, the Indians had intended to capture the post and destroy the garrison on May 31, but were prevailed upon by two French traders not to do so. The next day, several of the soldiers, together with Lieutenant Jenkins, were decoyed to a cabin outside of the fort and there seized. The others then surrendered, and all were held prisoners for some time. Lieutenant Jenkins, in a report to his superior officer, Major Gladwyn, of Detroit, thus tells the story:

"Sir: I have heard of your situation, which gives me

great pain; Indeed, we are not in much better; for this morning the Indians sent for me to speak to me, and immediately bound me. When I got to their cabin I found some of my soldiers in the same condition. They told me Detroit, Miamis, and all those posts were cut off, and that it was folly to make any resistance. They therefore desired me to make the few soldiers in the fort surrender, otherwise they would put us all to death in case one man was killed. They were to have fell on us and killed us all last night, but Mr. Maisongville and Lorain gave them wampum not to kill us, and when they told the interpreter that we were all to be killed, and he knowing the condition of the fort begged them to make us prisoners. They have put us into French houses, and both Indians and French use us very well. All these nations say they are very sorry, but that they were obliged to do it by the other nations. The belt did not arrive here until last night about eight o'clock. Mr. Lorain can inform you of all. I have just received the news of St. Joseph's being taken. Eleven men were killed and three taken prisoners with the officers. I have nothing more to say, but that I wish you a speedy succor, and that we may be able to revenge ourselves on those that deserve it.'

As has been said, Ensign Holmes, at Fort Miamis, had been early warned, and had made provision to secure the safety of his command, but he permitted himself to be beguiled into a trap. It seems that he had for a mistress a young Indian girl, and the wily savages determined she should be the means of placing the officer in their hands. This girl entered the fort and told Holmes that one of the squaws was lying very sick in a wigwam a short distance away, and desired that he should go and see her. Holmes at once went outside of the fort, and in a moment was shot down. The sergeant, hearing the shots, ran out to see what the difficulty was, and was in turn fired upon and slain. The nine men in the fort were then ordered to surrender, which they did. Thus, within a few days all the posts held by the English west of the Alleghanies, except Fort Pitt and Detroit, were in the hands of the savages. Pontiac had taken upon himself the capture of Detroit. He went to that place with a large number of In-

dians, and demanded a council with Major Gladwyn. The Indians had caused all their rifles to be cut off so short that they might be concealed beneath their blankets, and they intended, thus armed, to enter the fort, to be present at the proposed council, and at a given signal to rush upon the garrison and slay them, while the gates were to be thrown open by Indians detailed for that purpose, for the admission of those still on the outside. Major Gladwyn, like Ensign Holmes, had an Indian mistress, and she divulged the plot to the Major. Put on his guard, the design of Pontiac was frustrated. Pontiac laid siege to Detroit, and after several bloody encounters was finally compelled to withdraw.

The war lasted until the latter part of 1764, when peace was finally forced from the Indians, and Great Britain again took possession of the posts that had been captured, together with those which had not been previously delivered by the French, and the settlers had comparative rest from Indian depredations for ten years. At the close of the Revolutionary War, except at Vincennes, and a few French families at Ouiatenon and at Fort Miamis, there were no whites in Indiana. The Indians, however, were troublesome to the settlers in Kentucky and Ohio. In 1780 La Balme, a native of France, desiring to emulate General George Rogers Clark, in his capture of Kaskaskia and Vincennes, raised a few soldiers at Kaskaskia, and on being joined by a few more at Vincennes, started out to capture Fort Miamis, at the head of the Maumee. He succeeded in surprising the fort, and after plundering the traders he retired a short distance and went into camp. That night the Indians suddenly attacked him and he and nearly all his recruits were slain.

In the spring of 1781 Colonel Archibald Loughrey raised about one hundred men in Pennsylvania, as a reinforcement for General George Rogers Clark, who was then organizing an expedition against Detroit. These troops embarked on boats at Wheeling and moved down the river, expecting to join General Clark at the Falls of the Ohio. On the 24th of August he reached the mouth of what is now known as Loughery Creek, in Dearborn County. There he was surprised by a large force of Indians and

about one-half of his men were killed, the others being taken prisoners. Colonel Loughery was himself taken prisoner, but was tomahawked and scalped the same day.

By 1786 the Indians had again grown very restless, owing to the attempts of Congress to extinguish their claim to the lands northwest of the Ohio River, and frequent outbreaks occurred. In August of that year a Frenchman was killed by the Indians near Vincennes, and the French settlers were notified by the Indians to leave as the Indians were determined to make war on the Americans and destroy them. A strong force was raised in Kentucky for the purpose of destroying the Indian towns on the Wabash. About one thousand men, under the command of General Clark, marched from the Falls of the Ohio to Vincennes. The expedition finally reached Ouiatenon, and the Indian villages in that section were destroyed. Dissensions among the troops compelled their return to Vincennes without accomplishing anything further. A garrison was established at Vincennes.

By 1789 the war cloud had grown so large that General Arthur St. Clair, who was Governor of the Northwest Territory, was ordered to employ a large force to compel the Indians to peace. He tried persuasion, sending a messenger with letters to the various tribes, but the disaffection was too deep for mere words to conciliate. St. Clair called for reinforcements of militia from Kentucky, Virginia and Pennsylvania. The disaffection among the Indians had been fed by the British officers, who still remained in command of the various posts which had not yet been surrendered to the United States, and British traders supplied the savages with arms and ammunition. A part of the militia ordered out was to report to Major Hamtramck, who was in command at Vincennes and was to march up the Wabash against the villages on that river. The others were to unite with General Harmar, who had about four hundred regulars under his command. General Harmar was to operate against the Indians on the Miami and Maumee. Harmar's army consisted of about 1450 regulars and militia, the militia being badly armed and equipped. On the 15th of October General Harmar reached Kekionga, now Fort Wayne, but found it deserted by the Indians. The

Indians had left about twenty thousand bushels of corn and some other property. This was all seized and destroyed. An expedition was sent out under the command of Colonel Trotter, but returned to camp soon after, having killed two Indians. The militia had proved unmanageable.

The next day Colonel Hardin was sent out with a force of thirty regulars and about two hundred militia. On the 19th of October they reached a point about five miles from the confluence of the St. Joseph and St. Mary Rivers, where a short halt was made. The march was resumed, and after proceeding for some miles it was discovered that a part of the force had remained behind. Colonel Hardin sent his mounted men in search of it, and while his force was thus reduced he was suddenly assailed by a large body of Indians under the command of the celebrated Little Turtle. At the first fire the militia broke and fled, with the exception of nine, who remained with the regulars. The regulars kept up the fight until the nine militiamen and twenty of their own number were killed. Colonel Hardin, with what was left of his force, rapidly retreated until he overtook General Harmar at Chillicothe, a Shawnee village on the Maumee. This defeat of Colonel Hardin occurred near what is now known as "Heller's Corners," in Allen County. On the morning of the 21st, Harmar destroyed the Indian village and began a retreat toward Fort Washington.

Colonel Hardin, smarting under his defeat, and anxious to recover his reputation as an Indian fighter, persuaded General Harmar to give him a force consisting of 340 militia and sixty regulars, with which he rapidly marched back toward the Indian villages at the head of the Maumee, hoping to surprise them while they were rejoicing over their victory. Having reached the Maumee about daylight on the morning of the 22d, Colonel Hardin divided his force, and soon after, seeing small parties of Indians apparently in rapid flight, the militia pursued, and were drawn into an ambush. About the same time the regulars were attacked by Little Turtle and a massacre ensued. Several officers and one hundred and eighty-three men were killed in these two battles. The militia, as usual, fled and carried the news of the disaster to the main body.

This second battle was fought on what is now the site of Fort Wayne. After this second disaster Hardin rapidly retreated to Fort Washington. While these events were occurring on the Maumee, Major Hamtramck moved out from Vincennes and destroyed several villages on the Vermillion River. Thus closed the campaign of 1790.

The failure of Harmar, together with the severe repulse he had twice received, elated the Indians, and their depredatory incursions increased. In March, 1791, Congress determined to increase the force in the West and adopt vigorous measures. Governor St. Clair was ordered to take the field himself in command of the troops. He visited Philadelphia, and received his instructions personally from the Secretary of War. President Washington solemnly cautioned him against allowing himself to be surprised. In his instructions the Secretary of War said:

"While you are making use of such desultory operations as in your judgment the occasion may require, you will proceed vigorously in every preparation in your power, for the purpose of the main expedition; and having assembled your force, and all things being in readiness, if no decisive indications of peace should have been produced, either by the messengers or the desultory operations, you will commence your march for the Miami village, in order to establish a strong and permanent military post at that place. In your advance you will establish such posts of communication with Fort Washington, on the Ohio, as you may judge proper. The post at Miami village is intended for awing and curbing the Indians in that quarter, and as the only preventive of future hostilities. It ought, therefore, to be rendered secure against all attempts and insults of the Indians. The garrison which should be stationed there ought not only be sufficient for the defense of the place, but always to afford a detachment of five or six hundred men, either to chastise any of the Wabash or other hostile Indians, or to secure any convoy of provisions. The establishment of said post is considered as an important object of the campaign, and is to take place in all events. In case of previous treaty, the Indians are to be conciliated upon this point, if possible; and it is presumed good arguments may be offered to induce their acquiescence."

It will be seen that the Government had determined to erect and maintain a strong fort at the head of the Maumee. In pursuance of the plan of campaign marked out by General St. Clair, on the 5th of July General James Wilkinson was sent with an expedition against the Wabash and Red River Indians, and General Scott marched toward Ouiatenon. The object of these two expeditions was to destroy the Indian towns, and prevent the savages from massing against the main expedition under Governor St. Clair. They succeeded in destroying several villages, but failed in withdrawing any support from Little Turtle. By this time the Pottawatamies, Kickapoos, Delawares, Ottawas, Wyandots and Shawnees had joined with the Miamis to resist St. Clair. The Indians were led by Little Turtle, Blue Jacket, a Shawnee chief, and Buck-ong-a-helas, the most noted of the Delaware chiefs, the chief command being given to Little Turtle, owing to his renown as a warrior. The Indians took the field with about 1400 warriors. In September St. Clair began his march. He stopped to erect two or three forts and did not reach the headwaters of the Wabash until the 3d of November. The famous Shawnee chief, Tecumseh, had command of the Indian scouts that followed and observed his operations. On the morning of the 4th, about an hour before day, while resting in fancied security, St. Clair's camp was fiercely assailed. The troops endeavored to form and resist the attack, but they were assailed on every side. At last a bayonet charge was made, and the Indians driven back a short distance, but as soon as the whites stopped the pursuit, the Indians resumed the battle. When about half the army had fallen, and the artillery silenced, the army began a retreat, which in a very short time became a panic, the artillery being abandoned and the men throwing away their arms. About sunset the panic-stricken troops reached Fort Jefferson, distant about thirty miles from the battle field. The loss of the whites was terrible, being thirty-nine officers and five hundred and ninety-three men killed and missing, and twenty-two officers and two hundred and forty-two men wounded. Many women who had followed their husbands, who were in the army, were either killed or captured. As soon as the news of this disaster reached Philadelphia, the

Government determined to make a stronger effort than ever to punish the enemy and construct the fort at the head of the Maumee.

A force of five thousand men was assigned to the duty of conquering a peace, and General Anthony Wayne was placed in command. The troops were to rendezvous at Pittsburg, and there General Wayne arrived in June, 1792. Many perplexing difficulties were in his way. Commissioners had been sent out to endeavor to conclude a peace without any more fighting, and they protested that if Wayne made any show of advancing with an armed force they could accomplish nothing. Among the commissioners appointed to negotiate with the Indians were Benjamin Lincoln, Beverly Randolph and Timothy Pickering. Inspired by the British the Indians insisted that Great Britain had no right to cede the territory northwest of the Ohio to the Americans; that it belonged exclusively to the Indians, and they had a right to sell it to whom they pleased. Such claims the American Government could not recognize, and finally all attempts at negotiation were broken off. During the months that the negotiations had been dragging along, the Indians kept up their incursions on the settlements. On the 7th of October, 1793, General Wayne, at the head of 2600 regulars and 400 auxiliaries, marched from Fort Washington. He erected a fort at Greenville, and another on the field where St. Clair met his defeat. The latter he named Fort Recovery. General Wayne remained at Fort Recovery until the 30th of June, 1794, without any disturbance. On that day about 1500 Indians, aided by some British and Canadians, assailed a body of troops under the walls of the fort, but were finally repulsed. In July Wayne received a reinforcement of 1600 mounted volunteers under the command of General Scott. On the 4th of August he rapidly moved forward toward the confluence of the Auglaize and Maumee Rivers, where he erected Fort Defiance.

The Indians were disheartened by these movements of General Wayne. He had maintained such vigilance that they had been unable to surprise him, and he was designated by Little Turtle as the "Man-who-never-sleeps." On the 19th of August the Indians held a general council, and

Little Turtle urged that peace be made. He said: "We have beaten the enemy twice under different commanders. We can not expect the same good fortune to attend us always. The Americans are now led by a chief who never sleeps. The nights and the days are alike to him, and during all the time that he has been marching on our villages, notwithstanding the watchfulness of our young men, we have never been able to surprise him. Think well of it. There is something whispers me it would be prudent to listen to his offers of peace." The Indians refused to listen to this advice, and prepared for battle. On the morning of the 20th, while General Wayne was advancing in order of battle, he encountered the Indians. A desperate battle followed and the Indians were overthrown and their power broken. In this battle William Henry Harrison served as a staff officer to General Wayne, while Tecumseh, whom he afterward defeated at the battle of the Thames, led the Shawnees.

After the battle General Wayne destroyed all the crops and other property of the Indians in that vicinity, laying the country waste. He strengthened Fort Defiance, and in September began the erection of the fort at the head of the Maumee, to build which was the main object of Governor St. Clair's disastrous expedition. This post was named Fort Wayne after the American commander. In December small parties of the various hostile tribes met General Wayne at Greenville, and signed preliminary articles of peace, and on the 15th of June, 1795, all the head chiefs met him at the same place to conclude a final peace.

In 1806 General Harrison, Governor of Indiana Territory, received information that efforts were being made to stir up the Indians to hostility, and it was not long until the whole border was in a state of unrest, and the whites began to prepare for Indian incursions. This preparation gave license to lawless whites to commit depredations on Indians found hunting in the woods, and several such were killed. As was to have been expected, these murders only inflamed the feelings of the tribes and caused them more than ever to talk of war. Governor Harrison, under instructions from the President, did everything possible to preserve the peace. He sent messengers among the various tribes, cautioning them against listening to those who

advised war, and promising to do justice on those who had been guilty of crimes against the Indians. These messages apparently had some effect, the Indians promising to preserve the peace.

The Indians especially complained of the encroachments of the settlers on the lands reserved for the Indians. Some of the tribes had never given their sanction to the treaty of Fort Wayne, by which much of the land in Indiana had been sold to the Government. The warriors who were active in stirring up strife took advantage of this, and used it as an argument in favor of resisting the surveying and settling of the newly acquired lands. The two great leaders of this movement by the Indians were Tecumseh, and his brother, *Pemigat-a-wah*, principal chiefs of the Shawnee. Tecumseh was a bold and daring leader, a man of great eloquence, and possessed of all the parts necessary to make up a leader among savage tribes. He was not only the boldest warrior of his time, but was the most accomplished. His brother was the agent he used to arouse the hostile feelings of the tribes, who assumed to be a prophet, and declared he was directly commissioned by the Great Spirit to lead them. He declaimed against the use of intoxicating spirits, and especially against witchcraft, and such was his influence that he caused the burning to death of several Indians accused of using witchcraft. He would work the Indians into a state of frenzy, and then cunningly tell the story of the wrongs the Red Men had suffered at the hands of the whites.

When Governor Harrison received word of these events he again sent messengers to the tribes, warning them not to listen to the Prophet, for his only aim was to embroil them in war with the whites. This the Prophet denied. About the close of 1805 Tecumseh and his brother, followed by a small band of the Shawnees, removed to Greenville, Ohio. In 1808 the Prophet returned to Indiana and settled among the *Pottawatomies* and *Kickapoos* on the *Wabash*, near the mouth of the *Tippecanoe*. There he soon gathered around him quite a following of the most disaffected of the tribes. Tecumseh, at the same time, was traveling over the country, endeavoring to form a confederacy of the tribes to resist the encroachments of the whites, and to demand a

retrocession of the lands ceded by the treaty of Fort Wayne. He contended that no single tribe of Indians had a right to dispose of the lands; that the land belonged to all the tribes in common, and declared that he and his brother would oppose and resist any further attempts of the whites to extend their settlements northwest of the Ohio River.

Governor Harrison was fully informed of the schemes of the Prophet, and had several interviews with him, in which he cautioned him against continuing his practices. The whites were uneasy and fearful, the Indians pretending to wish for peace, but all the time complaining of wrongs committed against them. During the first months of the year 1810 quite a number of depredations were committed by both sides. The whites had one steadfast friend—Win-e-mac, the principal chief of the Pottawattamies. He used all his influence against Tecumseh and the Prophet. By this time the Prophet had collected about him six hundred or seven hundred warriors, from different tribes. When asked by Governor Harrison what was meant by this collection of warriors, the Prophet said he had been commanded by the Great Spirit to settle at that place. In July, 1810, Governor Harrison addressed him the following letter:

“Notwithstanding the improper language you have used towards me I will endeavor to open your eyes to your true interests. Notwithstanding what bad white men have told you I am not your personal enemy. You ought to know this from the manner in which I received and treated you on your last visit to this place, although I must say that I believe you are an enemy to the seventeen fires, and that you have used the greatest exertions with other tribes to lead them astray, and in this you have in some measure succeeded, as I hear you are ready to raise the tomahawk against their father. Their father, notwithstanding his anger at their folly, is full of goodness, and is ready to receive into his arms those of his children who are willing to repent, acknowledge their fault and ask for his forgiveness. There is yet but very little harm done, but what may easily be repaired. The chain of friendship which unites the whites with the Indians may be renewed, and be as strong as ever. A great deal of that work depends on you.

The destiny of those who are under your direction depends upon the choice which you will make of the two roads which are before you. One is large, open and pleasant, and leads to peace, security and happiness. The other, on the contrary, is narrow, crooked and leads to misery and ruin. Do not deceive yourself. Do not believe that all the Indians united are able to resist the force of the seventeen fires, even for a moment.

"I know your warriors are brave, ours are not less so. But can a few brave warriors stand against the innumerable warriors of the seventeen fires? Our blue coats are more numerous than you can count, and our hunting shirts are like the leaves of the forest, or the grains of sand on the Wabash.

"Do not think that the red coats can protect you; they are not able to protect themselves. They do not think of going to war with us. If they did, you would soon see our flags wave on all the forts of Canada.

"What reason have you to complain of the seventeen fires? Have they taken anything from you? Have they ever violated the treaties made with the red men? You say they purchased lands from those who had no right to sell. Show the truth of this, and the land will instantly be restored. Show the rightful owners of those lands which have been purchased. Let them present themselves. The ears of your father will be open to their complaints, and if lands have been purchased from those who did not own them they will be restored to the rightful owners. I have full power to arrange this business, but if you would rather carry your complaints before your great father, the President, you shall be indulged. I will instantly take the means to send you to the city where your father lives, with three chiefs which you will choose. Everything necessary shall be prepared for your journey and means taken to insure your safe return."

This letter did not appear to make much impression, but in August following Tecumseh visited Vincennes. Several interviews were held, and Tecumseh set forth his complaints in the following speech:

"Brother: I wish you to listen to me well. I wish to reply to you more explicitly. As I think you do not clearly

understand what I before said to you, I will explain it again. When we were first discovered, it was by the French, who told us they would adopt us as their children, and gave us presents without asking anything in return, but our considering them as our fathers. Since we have changed our fathers, we find it different.

“Brother, this is the manner in which the treaty was made by us with the French. They gave us many presents, and treated us well. They asked us for a small piece of country to live on, which they were not to leave, and continue to treat us as their children. After some time the British and French came to a quarrel. The British were victorious. Yet the French promised to think of us as their children, and if they ever could serve us to do it. ‘Now, my red children, I know I was obliged to abandon you in disagreeable circumstances, but we have never ceased to look upon you, and if we could now be of any service to you, we would still be your friends.’

“The next father we found was the British, who told us they would now be our fathers, and treat us in the same manner as our former fathers, the French, they would occupy the same they did, and not trouble us or ours, but would look on us as their children.

“Brother, we were very glad to hear the British promise to treat us as our fathers, the French, have done. They began to treat us in the same way. But at last they changed their good treatment, by raising the tomahawk against the Americans, and put it into our hands, by which we have suffered the loss of a great many of our young men.

“Brother, we now begin to discover the treachery of the British. They never troubled us for our lands, but they have done worse, by inducing us to go to war. The Hurons have particularly suffered during the war, and have at length become certain of it. They have told us that we must bury the British tomahawk. That if we did not, they (the British) would ere long ask us to take it up.

“You ought to know that after we agreed to bury the tomahawk, at Greenville, we found new fathers in the Americans, who told us they would treat us well, but not

like the British, who gave us but a small piece of pork every day.

"I want now to remind you of the promises of the white people. You recollect that at that time the Delawares lived near the white people, and satisfied with the promises of friendship and remained in security, yet one of their towns was surprised and the men, women and children murdered.

"The same promises were given to the Shawnees, flags were given to them, and they were told by the Americans that they were the children of the Americans; these flags will be a security to you; if the white people intend to do you harm, hold up your flag, and no harm will be done you. This was at length practiced, and the consequence was that the persons bearing flags were murdered, with others, in their villages.

"Now, my brother, after this conduct, can you blame me for placing little confidence in the promises of our fathers, the Americans?

"Brother, since the peace was made you have killed some of the Shawnees, Winnebagos, Delawares and Miamis, and you have taken our lands from us, and I do not see how we can remain at peace with you if you continue to do so. You have given goods to the Kickapoos for the sale of their lands to you, which has been the cause of many deaths among them. You have promised us assistance, but I do not see that you have given us any.

"You try to force the red people to do some injury. It is you that are pushing them on to do mischief. You endeavor to make distinctions. You wish to prevent the Indians to do as we wish them—to unite, and let them consider their lands as the common property of the whole. You take tribes aside, and advise them not to come into the measure, and until our design is accomplished, we do not wish to accept of your invitation to go and visit the President.

"The reason I tell you this is: You want, by your distinction of Indian tribes, in allotting to each a particular tract of land, to make them to war with each other. You never see an Indian come and endeavor to make the white people do so. You are continually driving the red people,

when at last you will drive them into the great lake, when they can't either stand or work.

"Brother, you ought to know what you are doing with the Indians. Perhaps it is by direction of the President to make these distinctions. It is a very bad thing, and we do not like it. Since my residence at Tippecanoe we have endeavored to level all distinctions; to destroy village chiefs, by whom all mischief is done. It is they who sell our lands to the Americans. Our object is to let all our affairs be transacted by warriors.

"Brother, this land that was sold, and the goods that were given for it, was only done by a few. The treaty was afterward brought here and the Weas were induced to give their consent, because of their small number. The treaty of Fort Wayne was made through the threats of Winemac, but in future we are prepared to punish those chiefs who come forward to propose to sell the lands. If you continue to purchase them, it will produce war among the different tribes; and, at last, I do not know what will be the consequences to the white people.

"Brother, I was glad to hear your speech. You said that if we could show that the land was sold by people that had no right to sell you would restore it. Those who did sell it did not own it. It was me. Those tribes set up a claim, but the tribes with me will not agree to their claim. If the land is not restored to us you will soon see when we return to our homes how it will be settled. We shall have a great council, at which all the tribes shall be present, when we shall show to those who sold that they had no right to the claim they set up, and we will see what will be done with those chiefs that did sell the land to you. I am not alone in this determination. It is the determination of all the warriors and red people that listen to me.

"I now wish you to listen to me. If you do not, it will appear as if you wish me to kill all the chiefs who sold the land. I tell you so because I am authorized by all the tribes to do so. I am at the head of them all. I am a warrior, and all warriors will meet together in two or three moons from this. Then I will call for those chiefs who sold you the land, and shall know what to do with them. If you

do not restore the land you will have a hand in killing them.

“Brother, do not believe that I came here to get presents from you. If you offer us any we will not take it. By taking goods from you, you will hereafter say that with them you purchased another piece of land from us. If we want anything we are able to buy it from your traders. Since the land was sold to you no traders come among us. I now wish you would clear all the roads, and let the traders come among us. Then, perhaps, some of our young men will occasionally call upon you to get their guns repaired. This is all the assistance we ask of you.

“Brother, I should now be very glad to know immediately what is your determination about the land; also of the traders I have mentioned.

“Brother, it has been the object of both myself and brother to prevent the land being sold. Should you not return the land it will occasion us to call a great council that will meet at the Huron village, where the council fire has already been lighted, at which those who sold the land will be called, and shall suffer for their conduct.

“Brother, I wish you would take pity on the red people and do what I have requested. If you will not give up the land and do cross the boundary of your present settlement, it will be very hard and produce great trouble among us. How can we have confidence in the white people? When Jesus Christ came upon the earth you killed Him and nailed Him upon the cross. You thought He was dead, but you were mistaken. You have Shakers among you, and you laugh and make light of their worship.

“Everything I have said to you is the truth. The Great Spirit has inspired me, and I speak nothing but the truth to you. In two moons we shall assemble at the Huron village (addressing himself to the Weas and Pottawattamies) where the great belts of all the tribes are kept, and there settle our differences.

“Brother: Now, Brother, I hope you will confess that you ought not to have listened to those bad birds who bring you bad news. I have declared myself freely to you, and if you want any explanations from our town, send a man who can speak to us.

"If you think proper to give us any presents, and we can be convinced that they are given through friendship alone, we will accept them. As we intend to hold our council near the Huron village, that is near the British, we may probably make them a visit. Should they offer us any presents of goods we will not take them; but should they offer us powder and the tomahawk, we will take the powder and refuse the tomahawk.

"I wish you, brother, to consider everything I have said as true, and that it is the sentiment of all the red people that listen to me. By your giving goods to the Kickapoos you killed many. They were seized with the smallpox, of which many died."

To this long harangue of Tecumseh, Governor Harrison replied, but while speaking he was rudely interrupted by Tecumseh, who made an impassioned address to his followers in the Indian tongue. General Gibson, who was present, and understood the Indian language, saw that there was an intention of suddenly attacking Harrison, and ordered up a guard of soldiers, that was some distance away. Upon being informed by General Gibson of the language used by Tecumseh, Governor Harrison sternly ordered him to depart at once, and broke up the council. The next day Tecumseh made what might be termed an apology, and protested that he meant no offense, and that he desired everything amicably settled. After some consideration Governor Harrison agreed to another interview, but no conclusion was reached, Tecumseh continuing to insist on a retrocession of the land in dispute. It is said that in these last interviews the Indian chief was very dignified and earnest.

Early in the year 1811 it became evident that the British agents in Canada, acting under the belief that war must soon come between the two countries, were making every effort to get on good terms with the Indians, and were inciting them to acts of violence. Governor Harrison kept himself well acquainted with all the moves of the Indians, and, seeing that hostilities could not much longer be delayed, began to prepare for war, the whole matter having been left to his discretion by the Government. Rumors of Indian depredations began to multiply, and in

June the Governor sent another letter to the Indians at Prophetstown, warning them that they were being misled. This letter brought about another visit of Tecumseh to Vincennes. In an interview with Governor Harrison the Indian chief said he would send runners out among the Indians to prevent any more murders, and that he was intending to make a trip to the South, but on his return he would visit the President at Washington, and with him settle all causes of difficulty, but that he hoped in the meantime no attempt would be made by the whites to settle on any of the lands ceded by the treaty of Fort Wayne.

Soon after this interview Governor Harrison determined to erect a new fort on the Wabash, and break up the hostile Indian camp at Prophetstown. He at once began preparations for the expedition, and called for troops from Indiana and Kentucky. About the middle of September this force assembled and was ready to march. It consisted of about seven hundred and fifty men. General Harrison moved out to the Wabash, a short distance from where the city of Terre Haute now stands, and began the erection of Fort Harrison. While encamped there some Delaware Indians came into camp and reported that they had just left Prophetstown, where the Indians were preparing for war, and that the Prophet had made a speech, in which he said that he had taken up the tomahawk and would never lay it down until the whites had righted the wrongs done the Indians. A night or two after this a sentinel of the camp was wounded by some lurking Indians.

The new fort was completed about the last of October, and leaving there a small garrison General Harrison resumed his march toward Prophetstown. By this time General Harrison had received reinforcements enough to bring his force up to nearly one thousand men, of whom two hundred and fifty were regular troops, and about six hundred Indiana militia. The others were volunteers from Kentucky. On the 6th of November the troops came in sight of Prophetstown. During the day it was noticed that the Indians were assuming a hostile attitude, and the troops approached the town in order of battle. A delegation of Indians met the troops and asked for an interview with General Harrison. At that interview the General told them that he did not intend to attack the town, but would

go on to a good place on the Wabash and encamp for the night, and would see them again in the morning. This was apparently satisfactory, and the Indians suggested what they called a good camping ground. To that General Harrison went, and while it was not a very safe place to encamp, finally agreed to stop there. The army encamped in order of battle, and the men were instructed to sleep with their clothes and accoutrements on, and with their firearms loaded and by their sides, with bayonets fixed.

About two hours before day, on the morning of the 7th, the Indians made a sudden and determined attack upon the camp. They came up so suddenly and so quietly that they were almost in the camp before the army was alarmed. They made their attack upon that part of the camp which was guarded by the militia, and the guard broke at the first fire. It was but a short time, however, before the troops were all in line, and a fierce battle raged. Until it got light enough to see, all that the troops could do was to defend themselves, but when daylight came several gallant charges were made by the troops and the Indians totally defeated. The troops suffered very severely, especially among the officers. Several distinguished men were killed, among them Colonel Jo Daviess, of Kentucky, one of the most gifted men and able lawyers the country had produced. He was killed while leading a charge by a small force of dragoons. The loss to the troops was thirty-seven killed in battle, and one hundred and fifty-one wounded, of whom twenty-five subsequently died.

The defeated Indians scattered to their various tribes, and the town with all its stores was destroyed. The troops then returned by slow marches to Vincennes. General John Tipton, who was an ensign in one of the companies engaged in the battle, afterward purchased the battle ground from the Government, and gave it to the State for a park. It is now so held. Tecumseh was not in this battle, being at the time in the South endeavoring to organize a gigantic Indian confederation. He returned soon afterward, and it is said reproved his brother for making an attack on General Harrison. The great result of the battle was the overthrowing of the influence of the Prophet with the Indians. He had told them that if they made the attack the bullets of the whites would not harm them. It

was that promise which made them enter so eagerly into the fight. They would not forgive him for his deception.

The approaching war with Great Britain began casting its shadow early in 1812. The Miamis and Delawares gave renewed expressions of their friendship to the Americans, but it was learned that the Pottawattamies, Kickapoos, Winnebagos and some of the other tribes were preparing for war. In April, a Mr. Huston, his wife and four children were killed by Indians, only a few miles from Vincennes, and a day or two afterward a Mr. Hurryman, wife and five children were killed. The news of these murders caused General Harrison to take prompt and energetic steps to organize a force for aggressive warfare. He also recommended the erection of a number of block houses for the protection of the settlers. He instructed the officers everywhere, on receiving information of Indian depredations, to promptly and energetically pursue the marauding parties, and to punish them to the utmost.

In the summer of 1812, a great Indian council was held at the Indian village on the Mississinnewa River, at which deputations from a number of tribes were present. Tecumseh was among them. He counseled peace, and in the course of a speech said that while he was absent General Harrison had attacked his people, but that it had all been made right between him and the General. His declarations in favor of peace were not well received by some of the other tribes, and one of the Pottawattamie chiefs, in reply to him, said he hoped that Tecumseh's future conduct would prove that he was anxious for peace. Each of the tribes present made renewed declarations of their intentions to keep peace with the Americans, but some of the tribes soon began to prepare for hostilities.

The declaration of war against Great Britain started out quite a number of small Indian parties, but for some months Indiana escaped, owing to the fact that the tribes were destitute and almost starving. The surrender of Detroit, and one or two small successes of the Indians near Chicago, set all the tribes in a blaze, and early in September hostile Indians began to gather in the neighborhood of Fort Wayne. About the same time a strong party made an unsuccessful attack upon Fort Harrison, while other bands penetrated far into the Territory, stealing and killing at

several points, and massacring twenty-four persons at Pigeon Roost, in Scott County. The attack on Fort Harrison was made on the night of the 3d of September. The Indians succeeded in setting fire to one of the block houses. The garrison was commanded by Captain Zachary Taylor, afterward President of the United States. His force was small, but he kept up the fight, under the most discouraging circumstances, until the morning of the 5th, when the Indians suddenly abandoned the attack. Captain Taylor had fire to fight as well as Indians, and it was only through his courage and endurance that the fort was saved. A few days afterward a small detachment of troops, guarding supplies on the way to the fort, was attacked and nearly all killed.

The Pigeon Roost Massacre was the worst that ever occurred in the State. This settlement was founded in 1809, and consisted of several families. On the afternoon of the 3d of September, 1812, Jeremiah Payne and a man named Coffman, who were out in the woods about two miles north of the settlement, were surprised by the Indians and killed. The Indians then attacked the settlement and killed one man, five women and sixteen children. The cabins of the settlers were fired and burned. A Mrs. Jane Riggs, with her three small children, escaped from the settlement, and after wandering around all night reached her brother's house, some six miles away, about daylight. William Collings, an old man who was in one of the cabins, with Captain John Norris, defended his cabin for a long time against the attacks of the savages, and as soon as it grew dark they both escaped, taking with them two children. They also arrived at the cabin of the brother of Mrs. Riggs, at an early hour in the morning. The Indians were hotly pursued by the militia, but escaped.

✓ In September, 1812, Fort Wayne was destined to undergo a memorable siege by the Indians. Several hundred savages gathered around the fort and formed a plan to capture it by stratagem. One day, under a flag of truce, a large body of Indians approached the fort, hoping to gain admittance, but the agent only admitted thirteen of the principal chiefs. The guards of the fort were kept under arms during the council. Win-e-mac, the chief of the Pot-tawattamies, was the principal speaker. It had been ar-

ranged that at a given time Win-e-mac was to give the signal by pronouncing the words, "I am a man!" At this signal the Indians were to attack the whites who were at the council, and, overthrowing them, at once admit the warriors who were on the outside. Win-e-mac made a long speech, in which he denied that the Pottawattamies had anything to do with the depredations complained of, or with the killing of any of the whites. His speech had been pacific enough, until finally striking his breast, he said: "But if my father wishes for war, I am a man!" Among those present at the council was a man by the name of Bondie, who had long lived among the Indians, and knew their character well. He had been expecting treachery, and was on the watch for the least sign. From appearances he felt satisfied that the remark of Win-e-mac was a signal, and he jumped to his feet in the presence of the Indians, and striking his hand fiercely on his knife, shouted in the Indian language, "I am a man, too!" This disconcerted the Indians, and before they could recover themselves the agent broke up the council and ordered the chiefs out of the fort. The commander of the fort was one Captain Rhea, who had been a gallant soldier, but was given to intoxication.

He had taken no steps to defend the fort, or to send word to General Harrison of his perilous position. The next morning the Indians opened fire on the fort, and wounded two soldiers, who died the same day. The same day a white man and two friendly Indians succeeded in breaking through the Indian lines and reaching the fort, bearing the welcome intelligence that General Harrison would soon march to the relief of the garrison. The siege was actively pressed by the Indians, and a fire on the fort was kept up day and night, but without doing much damage. On the morning of the 6th of September, General Harrison started from Piqua, Ohio, to raise the siege. The Indians tried to draw him into an ambuscade, but General Harrison had been too long serving against them for such an attempt to succeed. He arrived at the fort on the morning of the 12th of September, and the Indians hastily retreated.

Operating with the Indians were several British traders from Detroit and Canada, and among other devices to ter-

rify the garrison into a surrender, they hollowed out two or three logs, to represent cannon, and fired them at the fort several times. The little garrison would not be thus terrified, and held out to the last, fighting the Indians off, and putting out the fires as fast as they were lighted by the savages. The garrison lost but three men, while the Indians had quite a number killed. Around the fort had grown up quite a little village. It was occupied by French and American families. They had all been taken into the fort, but their cabins were destroyed by the Indians, together with all their other property. General Harrison sent out expeditions to destroy the Indian villages in that section, and all the towns on the Wabash and Elkhart Rivers, with all corn and other crops, were destroyed.

By the end of September, 1812, about two thousand armed men had assembled at Vincennes, to operate against the Indians on the Wabash. They were under the command of General Hopkins, who had been a distinguished officer of the Revolutionary War. General Hopkins started on an expedition against the Kickapoos, but after marching four or five days his troops mutinied and he was forced to return.

Upon reaching Vincennes he discharged the mutinous troops, and at once organized another force. With that he again marched into the hostile country, and destroyed several large villages, together with a great quantity of corn. On the 21st of November, one of his parties was fired upon and one soldier killed. The next day a company of sixty mounted rangers went out to bury the slain soldier, but were ambushed and lost eighteen men, killed, wounded and missing. A terrible storm of snow delayed pursuit of the hostiles, and before the pursuit could be resumed they had made good their escape. The weather turned intensely cold, and the troops being without any supplies of winter clothing, General Hopkins decided to return. Captain Zachary Taylor took an active part in this campaign, being in command of a company of regulars.

On the failure of General Hopkins' expedition it was determined to send out another, to destroy the towns of the Miamis on the banks of the Mississinnewa. The Miamis were professing friendship, but it was known that some of their warriors had been engaged in the attacks on

Fort Wayne and Fort Harrison, and at least one of them had participated in the Pigeon Roost massacre. The expedition to destroy the Miami towns was placed under Lieutenant Colonel John B. Campbell, of the regular army. He was given a force of about six hundred mounted men. Colonel Campbell was instructed that some of the Miami chiefs had been the undeviating friends of the Americans, and care should be taken that those friendly chiefs should not suffer. Those friendly Indians were Richardville, Silver Heels, White Loon, Pecan, Charley, and Godfroy.

The expedition did not get away from Dayton until the 14th of December, but then, notwithstanding it was bleak winter weather, and the roads through deep forests, Colonel Campbell pushed forward with the utmost energy, marching from forty to fifty miles a day. Early on the morning of the 17th he reached the Indian town on the Mississinnewa. His approach had not been discovered by the enemy and his troops rushed into the town, killed several warriors, and captured quite a number of prisoners. He burned the town and pushed rapidly on to the other villages. During the day he took and burned two or three other towns, destroyed all the cattle and other property, and returned to the first village destroyed, and camped for the night. It was a sudden and complete vengeance. On the morning of the 18th, about 4 o'clock, he called a meeting of his officers to consult as to future movements, and while the consultation was going on his camp was furiously assailed by a large body of Indians. The engagement lasted about an hour, when by several gallant charges the enemy was routed.

The Americans suffered a loss of several killed. The Indians were so rapidly driven back that they were compelled to leave fifteen of their dead on the field. The weather was intensely cold, and the troops were suffering for the want of supplies, and as Colonel Campbell obtained information that Tecumseh, with a much larger body of Indians, was not far distant, he determined to send to Greenville for reinforcements and to retreat in that direction. The troops retired and were not molested. The suffering of the troops must have been terrible, for when the relief they had sent for reached them, 300 of the men were disabled from frostbites. Soon after the battle of Missis-

sinnewa the Delawares and a part of the Miamis removed to Ohio, and placed themselves under the protection of the Government. The rest of the Miamis went to Detroit and joined the British at that post. In September, 1813, the British were forced to abandon Detroit by the approach of General Harrison, and then all the hostile tribes sued for peace.

So far as Indiana was concerned, during the year 1813 they were practically at peace, that is, they did not venture to attack any of the block houses or forts, but small scouting parties often penetrated the settlements, eluded the vigilance of the rangers, killed a white man here and there and then escaped. Several were thus killed in the immediate neighborhood of Vincennes, and a great deal of property run off or destroyed. Some were killed in Franklin County and some in Wayne. There were also some murders in the immediate vicinity of Fort Harrison. The militia, or rangers, whose duty it was to protect the settlements, had a hard work to do. The Indians divided into small bands of half a dozen or more warriors, and it was not hard for them to hide their trail after committing some depredation. The rangers, however, did, on several occasions, get close enough to them to punish them severely.

One of the most active of the rangers was John Tipton, afterward United States Senator. He was a young man of tireless energy and persistence, with a deep hatred for the Indians, who had killed his father. He had several fights with the marauding parties, and was uniformly successful. Each of the rangers carried his own supplies, and was armed with a rifle and large knife, and some of them carried in addition a tomahawk. The rangers patrolled the whole line of frontier settlements, and as most of them were never mustered into the United States service, only a few received any pay, or afterward the benefit of the pension laws. They camped in the woods, and frequently were compelled to go several days without anything to eat except wild fruit, or game that could be run down. Several expeditions were sent out to destroy the Indian towns. The most important of these was led in 1813 by Colonel Joseph Bartholomew against the Delaware towns on White River, and one under Colonel William Russell, against the

towns on the Mississinewa. The towns were completely destroyed, together with whatever property could be found. These active measures soon put an end to Indian depredations for that year. The defeat of the Indians and British, on the 5th of October, 1813, by General Harrison, at the battle of the Thames, where Tecumseh was killed, gave peace to the borders.

The conduct of the Tippecanoe campaign by General Harrison, in 1811, was severely criticised in many quarters, and he was condemned by a number of distinguished officers for permitting himself to go into camp at a place so open to attack, but no one has criticised his campaign of 1813, which ended in driving the British from American soil, and culminated in the battle of the Thames. An armistice with the Indians was entered into by General Harrison immediately after the battle of the Thames, and the Indians returned to their homes. Their condition was soon one of destitution, as all their crops had been destroyed, and they had nothing on which to subsist except the product of their hunts. In January, 1814, about one thousand Miamis, of whom several hundred were women and children, assembled in the neighborhood of Fort Wayne in a starving condition. Large numbers of Pottawattamies followed them, and the whole were partly supplied from the government stores. The different tribes of Indians living in Ohio, Indiana, Illinois and Michigan were invited to meet commissioners of the Government at Greenville, Ohio, in June, 1814, for the purpose of making a treaty. Many of the tribes responded, and at the time of holding the council about four thousand of them were present. The council was continued until the last of July, when a treaty was finally negotiated. It did not end all predatory incursions, however, for during the years 1814 and 1815 small bodies of Indians made frequent forays, killing settlers and stealing property. A detachment of troops, under the command of Lieutenant Morrison, was surprised near Fort Harrison and five of them killed.

It was not until some time after Indiana was admitted as a State into the Union, that all Indian depredations ceased. Occasional murders occurred and property was stolen. George Pogue, the first white man to settle on the present site of Indianapolis, was killed in 1819. The

Indians frequently suffered from lawless white men. But, as a whole, the settlements had comparative quiet after the end of the last war with Great Britain. At this place it is well to note a singular attempt of Great Britain to induce the United States to give up a large part of the territory it had acquired by the treaty of peace at the close of the Revolutionary War, and to give the English a good foothold from which to pursue other aggressive designs. One of the things insisted upon by the British Commissioners at Ghent, in 1815, at the opening of the negotiations for peace, was that all the territory now occupied by the States of Michigan, Wisconsin, Illinois, and the larger part of Indiana, and about one-third of Ohio, should be set apart for the Indians, to constitute an Indian sovereignty under British protection, to serve as a "buffer," a perpetual protection of the British possessions against American ambition. The United States was to agree not to purchase the lands from the Indians at any time. This absurd proposition was made as a sine qua non of the negotiations. The proposition was made with such haughtiness that it fired the American envoys and they at once rejected it, and declared their intention of going home. This determined stand by the American envoys alarmed the British Government, and the Duke of Wellington was called into counsel. He emphatically expressed himself against any attempt to make territorial acquisitions, or any demand that would afford the Americans grounds for abandoning the negotiations. The British Commissioners were instructed accordingly, and the audacious proposition was withdrawn.

CHAPTER VI.

SLAVERY IN INDIANA.

The first attempt to extend the area of slave territory began within less than ten years after the adoption of the constitution, and at a time when nearly every one in the United States was looking for the speedy adoption of some plan for the emancipation of all slaves. The effort came, too, from the citizens of a territory that had been dedicated to free labor by a solemn compact between the thirteen colonies and one of their number, and was checked and prevented by the action of the representatives in congress of one of the greatest of the slave-holding States. At the close of the War for Independence all the people recognized the evils of slavery, and looked for a day to come when, in America, all men should be free. It is true that in the constitution itself slavery was recognized, and foreign trade in slaves was permitted for a specified number of years. But that was done on the specious plea that labor was needed to develop the country and to cultivate the large plantations in the South, and that free labor was not then obtainable to meet the demands. No statesman, however, believed slavery would last longer than this absolute necessity remained.

When General George Rogers Clark captured Vincennes, in 1779, Virginia set up a claim to all the territory northwest of the Ohio River, embracing the present States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, and a part of Minnesota, and established a government for the same. The war left a burden of debt on each of the colonies and upon the Confederate Congress, and nothing

with which to discharge it. Congress, under the Articles of Confederation, was anxious to have all the unoccupied land, held by the various colonies, given to the general government, hoping by the sale of the same to realize enough to discharge its debts. Virginia claimed by far the greatest extent of this unoccupied land, and was the first to declare its willingness to meet the wishes of the general government, and in 1784 the deed of cession was signed by the representatives of that State, and this vast domain became the property of the United States.

For three years the territory remained practically without any form of government, and then an ordinance was passed by Congress providing a system of government. That was the celebrated "Ordinance of 1787," the grandest paper, with the single exception of the Declaration of Independence, that ever received the sanction of a legislative body. It declared it to be the duty of the people to encourage education; afterward for this purpose Congress set aside one section of six hundred and forty acres of land in every square mile of the territory thus ceded. The second great declaration was that "there shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said territory, otherwise than in the punishment of crimes, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted."

In the preamble to the Ordinance it was declared: "It is hereby ordained and declared by the authority aforesaid, that the following articles shall be considered as articles of compact, between the original States and the people and the States in the said territory, and forever remain unalterable, unless by common consent." This was a perpetual dedication to freedom. For a long time there was a controversy as to who was the author of the restricting clause, but it is now generally conceded it was written and presented by Nathan Dane, of Massachusetts. Before that it had received the sanction of Thomas Jefferson, and it was through his influence it was put in the Ordinance.

At that time slavery did exist, at Vincennes, Kaskaskia and one or two other places. It had been introduced from Louisiana, and had been fed by the sale of negroes taken prisoners by the Indians in the forays against Kentucky and Virginia. At first, it seemed as if all the inhabitants of the Territory acquiesced in this prohibition, and

some of those who still desired to keep their slaves, emigrated to the Spanish settlements west of the Mississippi. In January, 1796, John Edgar, William Morrison, William St. Clair and John Dumoulin, citizens of Kaskaskia, pretending to represent the citizens of St. Clair and Randolph Counties, sent a petition to Congress asking that the restricting clause be repealed. The petition alleged that the petitioners were the owners of certain slaves; that they were residents of the territory when it was captured by George Rogers Clark, and then owned their slaves; that the restricting clause was in contravention of the assurances made to them on behalf of Virginia, by General Clark, on taking possession of the country, and therefore was against the rights guaranteed them. They contended that they not only ought to be permitted to hold the slaves then in their possession, but the progeny of such slaves.

They represented that they had no desire to increase the number of slaves then in the United States, but only that they might introduce slaves from the older States. They quoted from Blackstone to show that under the law a person holding a slave in any part of the country could hold that slave in any other part, and then asked that if Congress would not repeal the restricting clause, it would at least designate for what term of years the owners of slaves might hold in servitude the children of slave parents. This petition was referred to a committee of the House of Representatives, and the committee reported, May 12, 1796, and among other things said:

“The petitioners being only four in number, and producing no power by which they claim to petition, even in behalf of the inhabitants of the said counties; and no evidence appearing of the wishes of the rest of the inhabitants of the said counties; and your committee having information that an alteration of the ordinance, in the manner prayed for by the petitioners, would be disagreeable to many of the inhabitants of the said Territory; they have considered it needless to enter into any consideration of the policy of the measure, being persuaded that, if it could be admissible, under any circumstances, a partial application like the present, could not be listened to; they are, therefore, of opinion that this part of the prayer of the petition ought not to be granted.”

The next petition on the subject was presented October 1, 1800, only a few months after the organization of the government of Indiana Territory, and was signed by two hundred and sixty-five citizens. The petition set up that the petitioners and their forefathers, inhabitants of the Illinois country prior to the ordinance, "possessed a number of Slaves, with whose assistance in the Cultivation of the Earth, together with the Indian Trade, which was then considerable, they lived in affluence; that those slaves were held under the laws of the French and English Government, and also under the laws of the State of Virginia during the time this Country was esteemed a part of that State; that on the arrival of Governor St. Clair, in the year one thousand seven hundred and ninety, your Petitioners were surprised and grieved to find, from the first official Information given them, that an Ordinance had been made by Congress for their Government which, in effect, tended to deprive them of their most valuable property, and which in its Consequence, as was then easily foreseen, has reduced them to the most abject state of Poverty and distress, the most wealthy of the Inhabitants having immediately removed with their families and Effects into the Spanish Dominion; that the Emigration from sundry parts of the United States into the Spanish Province of Louisiana is immense, much more so than is generally thought, and among them numbers of wealthy, reputable and industrious persons, all, or the most part of whom, but for the absolute prohibition of Slavery or Servitude, would settle in this Territory."

The petitioners then declared that they were opposed to an unconditional state of slavery, and venerated "the philanthropy which caused the prohibition of it," yet they entertained a hope that "a mode adapted as well to ameliorate the Condition of the unfortunate people concerned as to establish a gradual abolition of Slavery" would meet with the approbation of Congress.

They suggested a mode that would meet with their approval, which was to permit them to introduce slaves from any of the other States, and such slaves should be held to servitude during their natural lives and that their children, born in the Territory, should continue as slaves until the males reached the age of thirty-one years and the fe-

males twenty-eight, when they were to be absolutely free, and concluded with the following argument:

"To the adoption of such a modification of Slavery your Petitioners can not conceive any well founded objection will be made. It can not but meet with the support of those who are friends to the gradual abolition of Slavery, and your Petitioners can not entertain the Idea that any will be found to oppose a measure which in the course of a very few years will, in all human probability, rescue from the vilest state of Bondage a number, and without doubt a considerable number, of Souls yet unborn."

Congress took no action upon this petition, but quietly let it sleep on the table. Indiana Territory was organized in 1800, with nearly all the officials Virginians. With very few exceptions, all the prominent citizens of the State were either from Virginia or Kentucky. William Henry Harrison was Governor. When the Territory was organized it contained one hundred and eighty persons held to bondage. The Virginia and Kentucky settlers were anxious to introduce more slaves, and notwithstanding slavery was forbidden by the sixth article of the compact, slaves were being brought into the Territory, and held to servitude. Harrison and others knew this was illegal, and determined that a stronger effort than ever before should be made to induce Congress to repeal the restricting clause, so a convention was called to meet at Vincennes to take into consideration sundry matters relating to the Territory. That convention was organized by electing Governor Harrison chairman. The convention sent to congress a lengthy petition accompanied by a set of resolutions. The first part of the petition was devoted to the slavery question, and recited the argument in the petition just referred to, that the prohibition of slavery was driving Americans to settle in the Spanish dominions west of the Mississippi.

The convention, as if convinced that to ask for a total repeal of the restricting clause would not meet with favor, decided, as a sort of entering wedge, to ask that it be suspended for a term of ten years and then be again in force, "but that the slaves brought into the Territory during the Continuance of this Suspension, and their progeny may be considered and continued in the same state of servitude, as if they had remained in those parts of the United States

where slavery is permitted." It was thought that within the ten years of suspension enough slaves might be brought into the Territory to build up a sentiment sufficiently powerful to obtain a continuance of the suspension for another term of years, or the total abolition of the clause. The resolution accompanying the petition declared:

"We, the People of Indiana Territory inhabiting the middle and western Divisions of the Country Northwest of the Ohio, do, by our Representatives in general Convention assembled, hereby agree that the operation of the Sixth Article of Compact between the United States and the people of the Territory should be suspended for the space of ten years from the Day that a law may be passed by Congress giving their Consent to the Suspension of the Article."

The petition and accompanying papers were referred to a committee of the House of Representatives. John Randolph, of Virginia, was chairman of the committee and on March 2, 1803, presented a report in which he said:

"The rapidly increasing population of the State of Ohio sufficiently evinces, in the opinion of your committee, that the labor of slaves is not necessary to promote the growth and settlement of colonies in that region; that this labor, demonstrably the dearest of any, can only be employed to advantage in the cultivation of products more valuable than any known to that part of the United States; that the committee deem it highly dangerous and inexpedient to impair a provision wisely calculated to promote the happiness and prosperity of the northwestern country, and give strength and security to that extensive frontier. In the salutary operation of this sagacious and benevolent restraint, it is believed that the inhabitants of Indiana will, at no very distant day, find ample remuneration for a temporary privation of labor and of emigration."

This report was presented to the House the day before the adjournment, and was not acted on. At the next session the friends of the petition called it up and had it referred to another committee. This time the committee reported a resolution favoring the modification of the restricting clause as suggested in the petition, but again no action was taken. It was again referred, and another ad-

verse report made. In 1805 the Legislature of the Territory took the matter up, and presented perhaps the most curious argument in behalf of a repeal of the restricting clause that could have been devised. They pictured to Congress the condition of affairs in the slave States south of the Potomac, saying that "the slaves that are possessed south of the Potomac render the future peace and tranquility of those States highly problematical." Yet they were asking Congress to put them in the same category, so that the future peace and tranquility of Indiana would be highly problematical. The petition proceeded to say how deeply the Indiana legislators regretted that the African had ever been landed in this country, and how they wished "the invidious distinction between freemen and slaves" might be obliterated, and declared that the only thing left was to adopt some policy that would make slavery least dangerous to the country. Then they put up a plea for the poor slaves: "When they are herded together by hundreds they can not be as comfortably provided for as if they were scattered in small numbers on farms." Then came the cream of the whole argument:

"The Western Territories are immense, their situation inviting, emigration astonishingly great, the population west of the Ohio must chiefly be derived from the Southern and Western States where slaves are most numerous, and if no restrictions were imposed but holders and possessors of blacks permitted to remove them wherever whim or caprice might dictate, they would venture to predict that in less than a century the colour would be so disseminated as to be scarcely discoverable."

This remarkable production was signed by the President and three members of the Legislative Council, and by the Speaker and three members of the House of Representatives. The Speaker at that time was Jesse B. Thomas, who afterward, as a Senator from the State of Illinois, was the author of the Missouri Compromise measure for which Mr. Clay has generally received the credit. The petition was referred to a committee, and in 1806 the committee reported favoring a suspension of the restricting clause. One part of the report reads very much like sarcasm on the part of the author. Referring to the argument that danger existed in holding so many slaves in the section of the country

where slavery existed, the report said: "If this danger does exist, or there is any cause to apprehend it, and our Western brethren are not only willing but desirous to aid us in taking precautions against it, would it not be wise to accept their assistance? We should benefit ourselves without injuring them." While these petitions were being sent to Congress the Legislature of the Territory sought to settle the matter itself, and enacted laws authorizing the importation of slaves.

St. Clair and Randolph Counties were west of the Wabash River, in that part of the Territory called the "Western Division," and the people of those counties were anxious for a division of the Territory, and in November, 1805, they held a convention for the purpose of memorializing Congress, and setting forth the reasons why they wanted to cut loose from the people east of the Wabash. A committee was appointed to draft this memorial, and its chairman was Colonel John Edgar. This Colonel John Edgar was one of the four signers of the petition of 1796, the first to ask for the abrogation of the restricting clause. In the memorial asking for a separation is found:

"And whereas the Ordinance of 1787, for the Government of this Territory, is respected by the people as the Constitution of their country, this Committee entertain a hope that the General Government, after Guaranteeing to the people the privileges in that Ordinance Contained, will not pass unnoticed the Violation thereof By the late act of the Legislature of this Territory Authorizing the Importation of Slaves, and involuntary servitude for a term of years.

"And altho' this Committee entertain no doubt but that the Act in Question will render service, by adding a Spring to the Growth of this Country, They express the disapprobation of a people, who never will Consent to a Violation of that ordinance, for this privilege of slavery. When Congress shall deem a Change of the Ordinance expedient, they will Cheerfully agree to the measure."

Notwithstanding all the petitions and memorials, Congress took no action on the matter, and in 1807 the Territorial Legislature again sent forward a long memorial, setting forth that the two main reasons why slavery

ought to be permitted in the Territory were, first, the good of the poor negro, and second, the good of the slave holding States, by permitting those States to get rid of their surplus negro population that was endangering their peace and tranquility. Certain resolutions on the subject were claimed to have been passed unanimously. The memorial accompanying the resolutions recited the repeated efforts that had been made to induce Congress to either abrogate the restricting clause or to modify it, repeated at length all the arguments in favor of such abrogation or modification, and then said: "Slavery is tolerated in the Territories of Orleans, Mississippi and Louisiana; why should this Territory be excepted?"

The citizens of the Territory were now becoming alarmed at these persistent and determined efforts of the Virginia junta to make Indiana slave territory, first by petitions and memorials, and then by enacting laws under various disguises which were intended to legalize slavery, and they sent a counter memorial. Knox was the most populous county in the Territory, and next to Knox was Clark. On the 10th of October, 1807, a large meeting of the citizens of Clark County was held at Springville, then the county seat, and a memorial prepared for Congress. In that memorial were some rather startling statements. It referred to the convention held at Vincennes in 1802, and which asked the suspension of the restriction for ten years, and claimed that all the representatives of the eastern portion of the Territory had voted against that part of the petition. The memorial then said:

"In the year 1805, the subject was again taken up and discussed in the General Assembly, and a majority of the House of Representatives voting against said memorial on the aforesaid subject, and, consequently the memorial was rejected, as the journals of that House doth sufficiently evince; but a number of citizens thought proper to sign the same, and, amongst the rest, the Speaker of the House of Representatives and the President of the Council (though the President of the Council denies ever having signed the same); and, by some legislative legerdemain it found its way into the Congress of the United States as a legislative act of the Territory. In the present year of 1807, the subject was again taken up by the Legislature of

this Territory, and a majority of both Houses passed certain resolutions (in the proportions of two to one) for the purpose of suspending the sixth article of compact contained in the ordinance, which we presume are before your honorable body. But let it be understood that in the Legislative Council there were only three members present, who, for certain reasons, positively refused to sign the said resolutions; and they were reduced to the last subterfuge of prevailing upon the President to leave his seat, and one of the other members to take it as a President pro tem, for the purpose of signing the said resolution. Whether this be right or wrong judge you. And although it is contended by some, that, at this day, there is a great majority in favor of slavery, while the opposite opinion is held by others, the fact is certainly doubtful. But when we take into consideration the vast emigration into this Territory, and of citizens, too, decidedly opposed to the measure, we feel satisfied that, at all events, Congress will suspend any legislative act on this subject, until we shall by the constitution, be admitted into the Union, and have a right to adopt such a constitution, in this respect as may comport with the wishes of the majority of the citizens."

The memorial then presented some strong arguments against slavery in the abstract, and its introduction into the Territory in particular, saying: "A great number of citizens, in various parts of the United States, are preparing and many have actually emigrated to this Territory to get free from a government which tolerates slavery." These papers were all referred to a committee of Congress and the committee reported that it was not expedient to suspend the sixth article of compact.

These repeated failures to get Congress to repeal or modify the restricting article discouraged but did not put an end to the attempt to force slavery on the Territory. The Territorial Legislature found what it supposed was an ingenious device to increase the number of slaves. An act was passed making it lawful for owners of slaves to bring them into the Territory and to keep them therein for sixty days. During that sixty days the negro was to be given the alternative of signing an indenture which bound him to servitude for a certain number of years, or of being sent to a Slave State and sold. In 1808 a resolution was

introduced into the Legislature to again petition Congress on the subject. It was referred to a committee of which General W. Johnston was chairman. General Johnston made an elaborate report, which ranks as one of the most powerful documents ever presented to the Indiana legislature on any subject. Clear, logical, in concise sentences of great strength, he disposed of every argument that had been produced in favor of the introduction of slavery, and then, with equal power and strength, presented reasons why the institution should be barred forever. In one paragraph he said:

"That slavery though in itself unjust might nevertheless be tolerated from reasons of expediency is a point which your committee do not feel themselves at liberty to concede. They are firmly fixed in their persuasion that what is morally wrong can never by expediency be made right—such a pliable doctrine, if generally admitted, would soon line our highways with banditti, our streets with foot-pads, and fill our exchange alleys with swindlers; but policy itself forbids such a measure."

In another—

"With respect to its political effects, it may be worthy of enquiry how long the political institutions of a people admitting slavery may be expected to remain uninjured; how proper a school for the acquirement of republican virtues is a state of things wherein usurpation is sanctioned by law, wherein the commands of justice are trampled under foot, wherein those claiming the right of free men are themselves the most execrable of tyrants, and where is consecrated the dangerous maxim 'that power is right?'"

The report concludes with the declaration that slavery ought not to be admitted into the Territory, and that it was inexpedient to petition Congress for a modification of the restricting clause, and that the act of the Territorial Legislature permitting the introduction of slaves ought to be repealed. The legislative act was not repealed, but neither was Congress petitioned on the subject at that time. The friends of slavery did not, however, relax their efforts. Benjamin Parke was the delegate in Congress, and although leaning toward a modification of the restricting clause, was not active enough in the cause to suit the friends of the institution, and as the time had come when

the people could elect the delegate, the choice hitherto having been with the General Assembly, the friends of slavery determined to test the question before the people, being firmly convinced that slavery would have a large majority, and to insure this decisive majority they selected as their candidate Thomas Randolph, Attorney-General of the Territory, a man of great personal popularity, and an eloquent speaker. All the officials and leaders in the Territory were pro-slavery, and it was believed that even if its opponents could organize they could not find any one able to meet Randolph, or who was known generally over the Territory.

It is probable that at least eight out of every ten of the earliest settlers in the Territory came from the South, and it was this fact that made the advocates of slavery so confident of a large majority of the vote. The settlers along the southern and eastern borders were largely from the South, but they were of the class who had left the South and sought the Territory because they wanted to escape from the evils of slavery. Among them were many Quakers, mostly from the Carolinas. The opponents of slavery saw the intent of their enemies to get an endorsement of the voters, and were anxious to try conclusions with them, but where were they to get a leader? The leader came, and rather unexpectedly.

In Clark County was a young lawyer who hated slavery. He was only twenty-five years of age, but had already given evidence of oratorical ability of high order. When the proclamation was issued calling for an election, he, among others, began to look around for a champion. Conversing with a friend on the subject he said: "There is no use looking for a candidate among those who have a great acquaintance among the people, for they are all against us." The friend replied: "Jonathan, why don't you run?" Springing to his feet the young lawyer said: "I will!" and the next morning Jonathan Jennings mounted his horse and started out to visit all the voters in the southern and eastern part of the Territory. Wherever he could get half a dozen or more of the settlers together he would address them, and such was his eloquence that he soon had those sections of the Territory in a flame. The advocates of slavery attempted to stop him by making threats of per-

sonal violence, and even the Judge of the court made several efforts to provoke him to a duel. All efforts were in vain. His zeal and eloquence overcame all opposition, and when the votes were counted it was found that he had received a majority. He was given the certificate, but Randolph contested the election before the House, and a committee of that body reported in favor of unseating Jennings, and giving the place to Randolph, but the House rejected the report and confirmed Jennings.

The battle was fought over again in 1811, 1813, and 1815, Jennings being successful each time, the only question at issue being that of slavery. Thus, at four different elections the people of Indiana gave their voice against making Indiana slave territory. But the fight was not ended. The time came for the people to adopt a State constitution, and in the convention called for that purpose another determined contest occurred, but this clause was inserted in that instrument, by a very decisive vote:

“There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in this State, otherwise than for the punishment of crimes, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, nor shall any indenture of any negro or mulatto, hereafter made and executed out of the bounds of this State be of any validity within the State.”

Thus slavery was forever stopped at the Ohio River, after a contest that had lasted for twenty years. A singular fact remains that while slavery was thus prohibited, slaves continued to be held until 1843, when the last one died. The census for 1820 credited Indiana with one hundred and ninety slaves. The last indenture of a slave to be found of record was made on the fifth of July, 1814, only two years before the State was admitted into the Union. In that a mulatto bound himself to servitude for a period of thirty years. The last recorded sale of a slave was made in October, 1813.

CHAPTER VII.

ORGANIZATION OF CIVIL GOVERNMENT.

Virginia, through the capture of Kaskaskia and Vincennes by General George Rogers Clark, laid claim to all the territory northwest of the Ohio River, it being the same territory that had been ceded to Great Britain by France, in the treaty of 1763. New York, Massachusetts and Connecticut laid claims to parts of the same territory by operation of some remote royal charters. Soon after the close of the Revolutionary War propositions were made to cede to the General Government all this vast territory, together with much which lies south of the Ohio River. North Carolina laid claim to much of the territory south of the Ohio. Mr. Jefferson and other distinguished Virginians were very urgent that the cession should be made, but Virginia, as well as the other colonies, held back for various reasons. Mr. Jefferson urged the matter again and again, especially as Kentucky had begun clamoring for home rule. The same sentiment for home rule was rife in Tennessee, and culminated in 1785 in the organization of the independent State of Franklin. The General Government was anxious to get possession of the territory, that through the sale of the lands it might be able to discharge the great debt incurred in the struggle for independence. Maryland refused to join in the Articles of Confederation until some satisfactory agreement as to the western land was reached. In 1781 Virginia signified her willingness to make the cession of the lands northwest of the Ohio, when Congress should agree to the

terms proposed by her. Finally, in 1784, the following deed of cession was made:

"To all whom shall see these presents: We, Thomas Jefferson, Samuel Hardy, Arthur Lee and James Monroe, the underwritten delegates for the Commonwealth of Virginia, in the Congress of the United States of America, send greeting:

"Whereas, The General Assembly of the commonwealth of Virginia, at their session begun on the 20th of October, 1783, passed an act entitled 'an act to authorize the delegates of this State in Congress to convey to the United States, in Congress assembled, all the right of this commonwealth to the territory northwestward of the river Ohio' in these words, to-wit:

"Whereas, The Congress of the United States did, by their act of the 6th day of September, in the year 1780, recommend to the several states of the Union, having claims to waste and unappropriated lands in the western country, a liberal cession to the United States of a portion of their respective claims for the benefit of the Union; and whereas, this commonwealth did, on the 2d day of January, in the year 1781, yield to the Congress of the United States, for the benefit of the said States, all right, title and claim which the said commonwealth had to the territory northwest of the river Ohio, subject to the conditions annexed to the said act of cession; and whereas, the United States, in Congress assembled, have by their act of the 13th of September last, stipulated the terms on which they agree to accept the cession of this state, should the legislature approve thereof, which terms, although they do not come fully up to the propositions of this commonwealth, are conceived on the whole to approach so nearly to them as to induce this state to accept thereof, in full confidence that Congress will, in justice to this state, for the liberal cession she hath made, earnestly press upon the other states claiming large tracts of waste and uncultivated territory, the propriety of making cessions equally liberal for the common benefit and support of the Union; be it enacted by the General Assembly, that it shall and may be lawful for the delegates of this State to the Congress of the United States, or such of them as shall be assembled in Congress, and the said delegates, or such of

them so assembled, are hereby fully authorized and empowered, for and on behalf of this state, by proper deed or instruments in writing, under their hands and seals, to convey, transfer, assign and make over unto the United States in Congress assembled, for the benefit of the said states, all right, title and claim, as well of soil as jurisdiction, which this commonwealth hath to the territory or tract of country within the limits of the Virginia charter, situate, lying and being to the northwest of the river Ohio, and subject to the terms and conditions contained in the before recited act of Congress of the 13th day of September last; that is to say, upon condition that the territory so ceded shall be laid out and formed into states, containing a suitable extent of territory, not less than one hundred nor more than one hundred and fifty miles square, or as near thereto as circumstances will admit; and that the states so formed shall be distinct republican states and admitted members of the Federal Union, having the same rights of sovereignty, freedom and independence as the other states; that the necessary and reasonable expenses incurred by this state in subduing any British posts, or in maintaining forts or garrisons within, and for the defense or in acquiring any part of the territory so ceded or relinquished, shall be fully reimbursed by the United States; and that one commissioner shall be appointed by Congress, one by this commonwealth, and another by those two commissioners, who, or a majority of them, shall be authorized and empowered to adjust and liquidate the account of the necessary and reasonable expenses incurred by this state, which they shall judge to be comprised within the intent and meaning of the act of Congress of the 10th of October, 1780, respecting such expenses; that the French and Canadian inhabitants, and the other settlers of the Kaskaskias, St. Vincent's and other neighboring villages, who have professed themselves citizens of Virginia, shall have their possessions and titles confirmed to them and be protected in the enjoyment of their rights and liberties; that a quantity, not exceeding one hundred and fifty thousand acres of land, promised by this State, shall be allowed and granted to then Colonel, now General George Rogers Clark, and to the officers and soldiers of his regiment who marched with him when the posts of Kaskaskia and St. Vincent's were re-

duced, and to the officers and soldiers that have been since incorporated into the said regiment, to be laid off in one tract, the length of which not to exceed double the breadth, in such place on the northwest side of the Ohio as a majority of the officers shall choose, and to be afterwards divided among the said officers and soldiers in due proportion, according to the laws of Virginia; that in case the quantity of good lands on the southeast side of the Ohio, upon the waters of the Cumberland River, and between the Green River and Tennessee River, which have been reserved by law for the Virginia troops upon continental establishment, should from the North Carolina line bearing in further upon the Cumberland than was expected, prove insufficient for their legal bounties, the deficiency should be made up to the said troops in good lands, to be laid off between the rivers Scioto and Little Miami, on the northwest side of the river Ohio, in such proportions as have been engaged to them by the laws of Virginia; that all the lands within the territory so ceded to the United States, and not reserved for or appropriated to any of the before mentioned purposes, or disposed of in bounties to the officers and soldiers of the American army, shall be considered as a common fund for the use and benefit of such of the United States as have become or shall become members of the confederation or federal alliance of said states, Virginia inclusive, according to their usual respective proportions in the general charge and expenditure, and shall be faithfully and bona fide disposed of for that purpose, and for no other purpose whatsoever; Provided that the trust hereby reposed in the delegates of this state shall not be executed, unless three of them at least are present in Congress.'

"And, whereas, the said General Assembly, by their resolution of June 6th, 1783, had constituted us, the said Thomas Jefferson, Samuel Hardy, Arthur Lee and James Monroe, delegates to represent the said commonwealth in Congress for one year from the first Monday in November then next following, which resolution remains in full force:

"Now, therefore, know ye that we, the said Thomas Jefferson, Samuel Hardy, Arthur Lee and James Monroe, by virtue of the power and authority committed to us by the act of the said General Assembly of Virginia, before recited,

and in the name, and for and on behalf of the said commonwealth, do by these presents, convey, transfer, assign and make over unto the United States, in Congress assembled, for the benefit of the said states, Virginia inclusive, all right, title and claim, as well of soil as of jurisdiction, which the said commonwealth hath to the territory or tract of country within the limits of the Virginia charter, situate, lying and being to the northwest of the river Ohio, to and for the uses and purposes, and on the conditions of the said recited act. In testimony whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names and affixed our seals in Congress, the first day of March, in the year of our Lord, 1784, and of the independence of the United States the eighth."

The States of New York, Massachusetts and Connecticut respectively claimed, by virtue of ancient royal charters, large territories lying west of the river Ohio, and northwest of the western boundary of Pennsylvania. These claims were transferred to the United States, Connecticut reserving a tract which was called the "Western Reserve." The jurisdictional claim of Connecticut to this tract was surrendered to the United States on the 30th of May, 1800. Thus the United States obtained the jurisdiction over the Northwest Territory, and of the lands, subject to the proprietary rights of the Indians. When Congress assumed the jurisdiction there was no established government anywhere in the territory. The French commandants of the posts had administered laws dictated by France, and when the British got possession they proclaimed the Common Law of England to be in force, and Virginia had extended her laws, but there were no courts to enforce any of them. The question of forming some kind of a government at once attracted the attention of Congress.

A report was made to Congress providing for the formation out of the new territory of ten States. The region west of Lake Michigan and north of parallel 45 was to be known as the State of Silvania; the lower peninsula of Michigan north of parallel 43 as Chersonesus; that part of Wisconsin between parallels 43 and 45 as Michigania; between parallels 41 and 43 the eastern state as Metropotamia; and the western as Assenisipia; between parallels 39 and 41, the eastern as Saratoga and the western as Illi-

nois; between parallel 39 and the Ohio, the eastern state as Pelisipia and the western as Polypotamia; and the territory east of a meridian line drawn through the mouth of the Great Kanawha as Washington. By this proposition Indiana would have been divided among six of the States. No action was ever taken on this report.

From the time of the cession until 1787 there had been no organized control over the Northwestern territory. The people had been left to struggle along as best they could. Several companies had been organized in the east for the purpose of settling and colonizing this territory, and propositions had been made to Congress for the purchase of large tracts of land, but none of them had ever fully materialized. On April 23, 1787, a committee consisting of Mr. Johnson, of Connecticut; Mr. Pinckney, of South Carolina; Mr. Smith, of New York; Mr. Dane, of Massachusetts, and Mr. Henry, of Maryland, reported an ordinance for the government of the Western territory. It was discussed from time to time and greatly amended. Finally, on the 13th of July, it passed Congress. This great ordinance which laid the foundation of freedom in the rich States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin, is as follows:

“Be it ordained by the United States in Congress assembled, That the said territory, for the purposes of temporary government, be one district; subject, however, to be divided into two districts, as future circumstances may, in the opinion of Congress, make it expedient.

“Be it ordained by the authority aforesaid, That the estates of both resident and non-resident proprietors in the said territory dying intestate shall descend to and be distributed among their children and the descendants of a deceased child in equal parts; the descendants of a deceased child, or grandchild to take the share of their deceased parent in equal parts among them; and where there shall be no children or descendants, then in equal parts to the next of kin, in equal degree; and among collaterals, the children of a deceased brother or sister of the intestate shall have in equal parts among them their deceased parent's share; and there shall in no case be a distinction between the kindred of the whole and half blood; saving in

all cases to the widow of the intestate her third part of the real estate for life, and one-third part of the personal estate; and this law relative to descents and dower shall remain in full force until altered by the legislature of the district. And until the governor and judges shall adopt laws as hereinafter mentioned, estates in the said territory may be devised or bequeathed by wills in writing, signed and sealed by him or her in whom the estate may be (being of full age), and attested by three witnesses; and real estate may be conveyed by lease and release, or bargain and sale, signed, sealed, and delivered by the person, being of full age, in whom the estate may be, and attested by two witnesses, provided such wills be duly proved, and such conveyances be acknowledged, or the execution thereof duly proved, and be recorded within one year after proper magistrates, courts and registers shall be appointed for that purpose; and personal property may be transferred by delivery, saving, however, to the French and Canadian inhabitants and other settlers of the Kaskaskias, St. Vincent's and the neighboring villages, who have heretofore professed themselves citizens of Virginia, their laws and customs now in force among them relative to the descent and conveyance of property.

“Be it ordained by the authority aforesaid, That there shall be appointed from time to time by Congress, a governor, whose commission shall continue in force for the term of three years, unless sooner revoked by Congress; he shall reside in the district, and have a freehold estate therein, in one thousand acres of land, while in the exercise of his office.

“There shall be appointed from time to time by Congress a secretary, whose commission shall continue in force for four years, unless sooner revoked; he shall reside in the district, and have a freehold estate therein, in five hundred acres of land, while in the exercise of his office. It shall be his duty to keep and preserve the acts and laws passed by the legislature, and the public records of the district, and the proceedings of the governor in his executive department, and transmit authentic copies of such acts and proceedings every six months to the secretary of Congress. There shall also be appointed a court, to consist of three

judges, any two of whom to form a court, who shall have a common law jurisdiction, and reside in the district, and have each therein a freehold estate in five hundred acres of land while in the exercise of their offices; and their commissions shall continue in force during good behavior.

"The governor and judges, or a majority of them, shall adopt and publish in the district such laws of the original states, criminal and civil, as may be necessary and best suited to the circumstances of the district, and report them to Congress from time to time, which laws shall be in force in the district until the organization of the General Assembly therein, unless disapproved of by Congress; but afterward the legislature shall have authority to alter them as they shall think fit.

"The governor, for the time being, shall be commander-in-chief of the militia, appoint and commission all officers in the same below the rank of general officers; all general officers shall be appointed and commissioned by Congress.

"Previous to the organization of the General Assembly the governors shall appoint such magistrates and other civil officers, in each county or township, as he shall find necessary for the preservation of the peace and good order in the same. After the General Assembly shall be organized the powers and duties of magistrates and other civil officers shall be regulated and defined by the said Assembly; but all magistrates and other civil officers, not herein otherwise directed, shall, during the continuance of this temporary government, be appointed by the governor.

"For the prevention of crimes and injuries, the laws to be adopted or made shall have force in all parts of the district, and for the execution of process, criminal and civil, the Governor shall make proper divisions thereof; and he shall proceed from time to time, as circumstances may require, to lay out the parts of the district in which the Indian titles have been extinguished into counties and townships, subject, however, to such alterations as may hereafter be made by the legislature.

"So soon as there shall be five thousand free male inhabitants, of full age, in the district, upon giving proof thereof to the governor they shall receive authority, with

time and place, to elect representatives from their counties or townships, to represent them in the General Assembly; provided that, for every five hundred free male inhabitants, there shall be one representative, and so on progressively with the number of free male inhabitants shall the right of representation increase, until the number of representatives shall amount to twenty-five, after which the number and proportion of representatives shall be regulated by the legislature; provided, that no person be eligible or qualified to act as a representative unless he shall have been a citizen of one of the United States three years, and be a resident in the district, or unless he shall have resided in the district for three years, and in either case shall likewise hold in his own right, in fee simple, two hundred acres of land within the same; provided, also, that a freehold in fifty acres of land in the district, having been a citizen of one of the states, and being resident in the district, or the like freehold and two years' residence in the district, shall be necessary to qualify a man as an elector of a representative.

"The representatives thus elected shall serve for the term of two years, and in case of the death of a representative, or removal from office, the governor shall issue a writ to the county or township for which he was a member to elect another in his stead, to serve for the residue of the term.

"The General Assembly, or legislature, shall consist of the governor, legislative council, and a house of representatives. The legislative council shall consist of five members, to continue in office five years, unless sooner removed by Congress, any three of whom to be a quorum, and the members of the council shall be nominated and appointed in the following manner, to-wit: As soon as the representatives shall be elected, the governor shall appoint a time and place for them to meet together, and, when met, they shall nominate ten persons, residents of the district, and each possessed of a freehold in five hundred acres of land, and return their names to Congress; five of whom Congress shall appoint and commission to serve as aforesaid; and whenever a vacancy shall happen in the council, by death or removal from office, the House of Representatives shall

nominate two persons, qualified, as aforesaid, for each vacancy, and return their names to Congress, one of whom Congress shall appoint and commission for the residue of the term; and every five years, four months at least before the expiration of the time of service of the members of the council, the said house shall nominate ten persons, qualified as aforesaid, and return their names to Congress, five of whom Congress shall appoint and commission to serve as members of the council for five years unless sooner removed. And the Governor, legislative council and house of representatives shall have authority to make laws, in all cases, for the good government of the district, not repugnant to the principles and articles in this ordinance established and declared. And all bills, having passed by a majority in the house, and by a majority in the council, shall be referred to the governor for his assent; but no bill or legislative act whatever shall be of any force without his assent. The governor shall have power to convene, prorogue and dissolve the General Assembly, when, in his opinion, it shall be expedient.

“The governor, judges, legislative council, secretary, and such other officers as Congress shall appoint in the district, shall take an oath or affirmation of fidelity and of office; the governor before the president of Congress, and all the other officers before the governor. As soon as a legislature shall be formed in the district, the council and house assembled in one room, shall have authority, by joint ballot, to elect a delegate to Congress, who shall have a seat in Congress, with a right of debating, but not of voting, during this temporary government.

“And for extending the fundamental principles of civil and religious liberty, which form the basis whereon these republics, their laws and constitutions are erected; to fix and establish these principles as the basis of all laws, constitutions and governments, which forever hereafter shall be formed in the said territory; to provide also for the establishment of state and permanent government therein, and for their admission to a share in the federal councils on an equal footing with the original states, at as early periods as may be consistent with the general interest:

“It is hereby ordained and declared by the authority aforesaid, that the following articles shall be considered

as articles of compact, between the original states and the people and the states in the said territory, and forever remain unalterable, unless by common consent, to-wit:

“Art. 1.—No person demeaning himself in a peaceable and orderly manner, shall ever be molested on account of his mode of worship or religious sentiments, in the said territory.

“Art. 2.—The inhabitants of the said territory shall always be entitled to the benefits of the writ of habeas corpus, and of the trial by jury; of a proportionate representation of the people in the legislature, and of judicial proceedings according to the course of the common law. All persons shall be bailable, unless for capital offenses, where the proof shall be evident or the presumption great. All fines shall be moderate, and no cruel or unusual punishments shall be inflicted. No man shall be deprived of his liberty or property, but by the judgment of his peers or the law of the land, and should the public exigencies make it necessary, for the common preservation to take any person's property, or to demand his particular services, full compensation shall be made for the same. And in the just preservation of rights and property, it is understood and declared that no law ought ever to be made or have force in the said territory that shall in any manner whatever interfere with or affect private contracts or engagements, bona fide and without fraud, previously formed.

“Art. 3.—Religion, morality and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged. The utmost good faith shall always be observed toward the Indians; their lands and property shall never be taken from them without their consent, and in their property, rights and liberty they never shall be invaded or disturbed, unless in just and lawful wars authorized by Congress; but laws founded in justice and humanity shall, from time to time, be made for preventing wrongs being done to them, and for preserving peace and friendship with them.

“Art. 4.—The said territory, and the states which may be formed therein, shall forever remain a part of this confederacy of the United States of America, subject to the

Articles of Confederation and to such alterations therein as shall be constitutionally made; and to all the acts and ordinances of the United States, in Congress assembled, conformable thereto. The inhabitants and settlers in the said territory shall be subject to pay a part of the federal debts contracted or to be contracted, and a proportional part of the expenses of the government, to be apportioned on them by Congress, according to the same common rule and measure, by which apportionments thereof shall be made on the other states; and the taxes for paying their proportion shall be laid and levied by the authority and direction of the legislatures of the district or districts or new states, as in the original states, within the time agreed upon by the United States in Congress assembled. The legislatures of those districts or new states shall never interfere with the primary disposal of the soil by the United States in Congress assembled, nor with any regulations Congress may find necessary for securing the title in such soil to the bona fide purchasers. No tax shall be imposed on lands the property of the United States; and in no case shall non-resident proprietors be taxed higher than residents. The navigable waters leading into the Mississippi and St. Lawrence, and the carrying places between the same shall be common highways and forever free, as well to the inhabitants of the said territory, as to the citizens of the United States and those of any other states that may be admitted into the confederacy, without any tax, impost or duty therefor.

“Art. 5.—There shall be formed in the said territory, not less than three nor more than five states, and the boundaries of the states, as soon as Virginia shall alter her act of cession and consent to the same, shall become fixed and established as follows, to-wit: The western state in the said territory shall be bounded by the Mississippi, the Ohio and Wabash Rivers; a direct line drawn from the Wabash and Post Vincents, due north to the territorial line between the United States and Canada; and by the said territorial line to the Lake of the Woods and Mississippi. The middle state shall be bounded by the said direct line, the Wabash, from Post Vincents to the Ohio, by the Ohio, by a direct line drawn due north from the mouth of the great

Miami to the said territorial line, and by the said territorial line. The eastern state shall be bounded by the last mentioned direct line, the Ohio, Pennsylvania, and the said territorial line: provided, however, and be it further understood and declared, that the boundaries of these three states shall be subject so far to be altered, that if Congress shall find it hereafter expedient, they shall have authority to form one or two states in that part of the said territory which lies north of an east and west line drawn through the southerly bend or extreme of Lake Michigan. And whenever any of the said States shall have sixty thousand free inhabitants therein, such States shall be admitted by its delegates into the Congress of the United States, on an equal footing with the original States, in all respects whatever; and shall be at liberty to form a permanent constitution and State government: provided, the constitution and government, so to be formed, shall be republican, and in conformity to the principles contained in these articles, and, so far as can be consistent with the general interests of the confederacy, such admission shall be allowed at an earlier period, and when there may be a less number of free inhabitants in the State than sixty thousand.

“Art. 6.—There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said territory, otherwise than in the punishment of crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted; provided, always, that any person escaping into the same, from whom labor or service is lawfully claimed in any one of the original States, such fugitive may be lawfully reclaimed and conveyed to the person claiming his or her service as aforesaid.”

After the adoption by Congress of the Ordinance of 1787 it became necessary to organize some kind of government for the newly acquired territory. The laws of Virginia had been extended over a portion of the territory by arbitrary acts of General George Rogers Clark. Around Vincennes and Kaskaskia the laws that had been made by the French Governors, and the Common Law of England, which had followed the British occupation, were also in force. There were no courts and it was necessary, for the good of society, that such be established; and for the protection of the frontier it was necessary that some one be

clothed with adequate authority. The seat of the General Government was too far away to furnish the needed protection to the exposed frontiers. On the 5th of October, 1787, Major-General Arthur St. Clair was elected by Congress Governor of the Territory northwest of the Ohio River. St. Clair was a Scotchman by birth and had served in the British army during the French war, carrying a standard at the storming of Quebec by General Wolfe. He served with the American forces in the Revolutionary War, with great distinction.

Among his instructions was one to neglect no opportunity that might offer of extinguishing the Indian rights to lands as far west as the Mississippi River and as far northward as the completion of the forty-first degree of north latitude. He was also instructed to use every effort to conciliate the various Indian tribes. In the month of July, 1788, Governor St. Clair arrived at Marietta, on the Ohio River, where he established the seat of government. Together with the general court, composed of three men, he adopted and published a number of laws, civil and criminal. Among the penalties for some of the minor offenses were whipping and standing in the pillory. Among the other provisions may be found the following:

“Whereas, idle, vain and obscene conversation, profane cursing, and swearing, and more especially the irreverently mentioning, calling upon, or invoking the Sacred and Supreme Being, by any of the divine characters in which He has graciously condescended to reveal His infinitely beneficent purposes to mankind, are repugnant to every moral sentiment, subversive of every civil obligation, inconsistent with the ornaments of polished life, and abhorrent to the principles of the most benevolent religion: It is expected, therefore, if crimes of this kind should exist, they will not find encouragement, countenance, or approbation in this Territory.” It was enjoined upon officers, parents, heads of families, and others of every description to abstain from such practices. It was also declared that the government would consider as unworthy its confidence all those who obstinately violated these injunctions.

Among the other provisions the following is found: “Whereas, mankind in every stage of informed society, has

consecrated certain portions of time to the particular cultivation of the social virtues, and the public adoration and worship of the common Parent of the Universe; and whereas, as a practice so rational in itself, and conformable to the divine precepts is greatly conducive to civilization as well as morality and piety; and whereas, for the advancement of such important and interesting purposes, most of the Christian world have set apart the first day of the week as a day of rest from common labors and pursuits; it is therefore enjoined that all servile labor, works of necessity and charity only excepted, be wholly abstained from on said day." By these two citations from the earliest American laws for this great section of the country, it will be seen that the governing power was disposed to look after the moral welfare of the people, and to acknowledge a common obligation to God.

On the 9th of January, 1789, Governor St. Clair made a treaty with a number of the sachems and warriors of the Six Nations, and also with some of the other tribes, or rather with the individual warriors of those tribes. The Wyandot, Delaware, Ottawa, Chippewa, Pottawattamie and Sac tribes refused to be bound by the treaties, and soon began a series of marauding expeditions along the frontiers of Virginia and Kentucky. These expeditions and their results are more specifically noticed in another chapter.

In October, 1789, President Washington addressed a series of instructions to Governor St. Clair, and called his attention to the orders of Congress relative to the settlement of the question of titles held by the settlers at Vincennes and Kaskaskia to the lands they occupied. The President in his letter said: "It is a circumstance of some importance that the said inhabitants, should, as soon as possible, possess the lands to which they are entitled, by some fixed principles." This question of land titles was already beginning to breed trouble and discontent. At the first settlement of the French at Vincennes the Piankashaw Indians had granted to the settlers a large body of land for the use of the Post. The French commandants, under the authority of the King, had made grants to individuals to some of these lands, and this custom had been

followed by both British and American commandants. When the territory was ceded by France to the British, at the close of the great war, the British officers held that the original grant had been made by the Indians to the French crown, and not to the Post itself, or the people thereof, and took possession of all the land, that had not been formally conveyed to individual settlers, in the name of the King of England.

General Gage, the English Commander-in-Chief, demanded that the settlers should prove up their claims, but as records were loosely kept in those days, and most of them had been destroyed, many of the titles could not be established. When General Clark captured the Post, the men he left in charge made grants with a liberal hand, especially to themselves. The matter came before Congress in 1788 and a resolution was passed confirming in their possessions and titles the French and Canadian inhabitants, and other settlers about Kaskaskia and Vincennes who, on or before the year 1783, had professed allegiance to the United States. or to any of them. By the same resolution a tract of four hundred acres of land was granted to each head of a family of this description of settlers.

To comply with this duty, and to further perfect the civil organization of the territory, early in 1790 Governor St. Clair, with the Judges of the Supreme Court of the Territory, proceeded to Fort Washington, where Cincinnati now stands, and organized the County of Hamilton, appointing the necessary officers. The Governor and Secretary of the Territory then went to Clarksville, and from there to the Illinois country. On his arrival at Kaskaskia the Governor laid out the County of St. Clair, and directed the inhabitants to exhibit to him their titles to the lands they held, and he confirmed them in their holdings, and ordered the necessary surveys to be made. Governor St. Clair returned to Fort Washington, but Winthrop Sargent, Secretary of the Territory, proceeded to Vincennes and organized the County of Knox, and began the work of examining and establishing land titles.

Under the Ordinance of 1787 it was provided that when the Territory should contain five thousand free inhabitants of full age, the people should have the right to take what

was termed the second step in Territorial government, that is, should elect a legislature of their own. The people could elect the members of the House, or Assembly, and the House, when organized, could send to the President the names of ten persons, from which list the President would name five to act as the Council or upper body of the Legislature. The Territory remained under its first form of government until 1798 when Governor St. Clair issued his proclamation calling for the election of representatives to the General Assembly. This proclamation was issued on the 29th day of October. Prior to that, Winthrop Sargent, who had been the Secretary of the Territory from its first organization, was appointed in May, 1797, Governor of the Territory of Mississippi, and Captain William Henry Harrison was named as Secretary of the Northwest Territory. The election for representatives was held on the third Monday of December, and the General Assembly was ordered to convene at Cincinnati on the 22d day of January, 1799. The seat of government had been removed from Marietta to Cincinnati some time previously. Ten names for the Council were sent to President Adams and the Assembly was prorogued until the 16th of September following. The two Houses met in September, but were not formally organized until the twenty-fourth. Henry Vanderburgh was elected President of the Council.

On the twenty-fifth of September Governor St. Clair addressed the Territorial Legislature, and after calling the attention of that body to various subjects, closed as follows: "The providing for, and the regulating the lives and morals of the present and of the rising generation, for the repression of vice and immorality, and for the protection of virtue and innocence, for the security of property and the punishment of crime is a sublime employment. Every aid in my power will be afforded, and I hope we shall bear in mind that the character and deportment of the people and their happiness, both here and hereafter, depend very much upon the spirit and genius of their laws." The sound doctrine set forth by Governor St. Clair seems to have met with a hearty response from the infantile Legislature, for among the first laws enacted was one designed to prevent Sabbath breaking, profane swearing, drunkenness, duel-

ing, cock fighting, running horses on the public highways, and gambling at billiards, cards, dice, shovel board, etc. Later Legislatures have forgotten much of the sound teachings of the fathers in this respect, as also on the subject of levying taxes. The first tax law for the Northwest Territory provided that land owners should pay for every one hundred acres of first-rate land, eighty-five cents; for every hundred acres of second-rate land, sixty cents; for every hundred acres of third-rate land, twenty-five cents; and so on, in proportion for a greater or less quantity of land. The whipping post and pillory were established.

One of the duties of the Territorial Legislature was the election of a delegate to Congress. A very spirited contest arose over this matter, the two candidates being William Henry Harrison, Secretary of the Territory, and Arthur St. Clair, Jr., a son of Governor St. Clair. Harrison was the winner, the vote standing eleven for him to ten for St. Clair. Quite a number of laws were passed and the Territory was fairly started on its second stage of political existence. The election of Mr. Harrison to Congress made a vacancy in the office of Secretary which was filled by the appointment of Charles Willing Boyd by the President. The Territory had hardly got started on its course of legislating for itself, when it was divided by an act of Congress, approved on the 7th day of May, 1800. The act declared, "that from and after the fourth day of July next, all that part of the territory of the United States northwest of the Ohio River, which lies to the westward of a line beginning at the Ohio opposite to the mouth of Kentucky River and running thence to Fort Recovery and thence north until it shall intersect the territorial line between the United States and Canada, shall, for the purpose of temporary government, constitute a separate territory, and be called the Indiana Territory."

By this act the people of Indiana were relegated to the first form of territorial government, the power of enacting laws being in the hands of the Governor and Judges, but they were still invested with all the rights, privileges and advantages granted and secured by the Ordinance of 1787. The seat of government for Indiana Territory was fixed at Vincennes, and William Henry Harrison was appointed

Governor, and John Gibson, of Pennsylvania, was appointed Secretary. Gibson was the man to whom the celebrated Indian chief, Logan, made his famous speech. William Clark, Henry Vanderburgh and John Griffin were appointed territorial Judges. At the time of this new organization the civilized population of the Territory was estimated at four thousand eight hundred and seventy-five.

Governor Harrison could not at once enter upon the discharge of his duties, but Secretary Gibson reached Vincennes in July, 1800, and became acting Governor in the absence of General Harrison. In January, 1801, Governor Harrison reached Vincennes and assumed his duties, calling a meeting of the Judges for the purpose of framing the necessary laws for the government of the Territory. They promptly met and enacted several laws. The Territorial Judges, William Clark, Henry Vanderburgh and John Griffin, opened the first session of the general court of Indiana Territory on the 3d of March, 1801. The first grand jury that ever assembled in Indiana consisted of Luke Decker, Antoine Marshal, Joseph Baird, Patrick Simpson, Antoine Petit, Andre Montplaiseur, John Ockiltree, Jonathan Marney, Jacob Tevebaugh, Alexander Vadney, Francois Turpin, Fr. Compagnoitte, Charles Languedoc, Louis Severe, Fr. Languedoc, George Catt, John Bt. Barrios, Abraham Decker and Philip Catt. The list shows that the inhabitants were mainly French or of French extraction.

In March, 1804, Congress attached to Indiana, all that part of Louisiana, which was situated west of the Mississippi River, and north of the thirty-third degree north latitude, under the name of the "District of Louisiana," but the following year it was organized into a separate Territory. In 1804 an election had been held to determine whether the people of Indiana desired to enter upon the second stage of territorial government, and it having been decided in the affirmative, Governor Harrison issued a proclamation for an election of members of the Assembly to take place on January 3, 1805. The Assembly met at Vincennes on the 1st of February and selected ten names for the President to choose a council from. In January, a few days only after the election, Congress divided the Territory again and organized the Territory of Michigan.

The first General Assembly of Indiana met at Vincennes on the 29th day of July, 1805. The message of Governor Harrison called attention to many important matters, especially to the necessity of doing something to stop the sale of liquor to the Indians. As a rule the Indians were peaceable enough when sober, but when drunk were very dangerous. The Indians would barter their arms, clothing, and any other property for liquor, and then starve their women and children. At this session Benjamin Parke was elected delegate to Congress. Benjamin Parke was a native of New Jersey, and came to Indiana in 1801, settling at Vincennes. Soon after his arrival he was appointed Attorney General of the Territory. He served as a delegate in Congress until he was appointed by President Jefferson a Territorial Judge. He was a member of the convention that framed the first constitution of the State, and on the admission of Indiana into the Union, President Madison appointed him United States Judge, which position he held until his death. He took a prominent part in the battle of Tippecanoe. While acting as Territorial Judge his courts were scattered in various parts of the Territory and the traveling had to be done on horseback, through the woods and oftentimes across streams that were not fordable. It is said of him that he never missed a court. His home was at Vincennes and on one occasion he traveled from Vincennes down to the Ohio River, then up to Lawrenceburg and across to Wayne County to hold court, when there was but one case upon the docket, and that of a young man charged with stealing a pocket-knife worth twenty-five cents.

In company with two other men he entered upon the banking business at Vincennes. This proved to be an unfortunate venture upon his part. The bank broke and left Mr. Parke a bankrupt, but he set himself at work, and before his death had cleared off the entire indebtedness. During his life Benjamin Parke stood as one of the foremost men in Indiana.

The question of another division of the Indiana Territory into two parts was pressed upon the attention of Congress by legislative memorials and petitions, in the years 1806, 1807 and 1808. The principal reasons which were assigned in favor of such a division were based upon the wide

extent of wilderness country which separated the civilized population of the Territory; the dangers and the expenses which were imposed upon parties and witnesses who were compelled to attend the courts, and the difficulties which prevented or obstructed the administration of the laws at settlements remote from the seat of Government. In 1809 Congress divided the territory providing that all that part of the Indiana Territory lying "west of the Wabash River, and a direct line drawn from the said Wabash River and Post Vincennes, due north to the territorial line between the United States and Canada," should constitute the Territory of Illinois. By this act Indiana was reduced to its present size. In 1808 the white population of Indiana Territory was about twenty-eight thousand, of whom eleven thousand lived west of the Wabash in what became the Territory of Illinois.

On the appointment of Benjamin Parke to a seat in the judiciary of the Territory the Legislature elected Jesse B. Thomas delegate to Congress. Owing to a doubt arising as to the legality of the election at which the Legislature was chosen, it was dissolved by General Harrison.

The division of Indiana Territory, in 1809, and the formation of Illinois Territory, caused a hitch in legislative matters that for some time left everything in a bad tangle. This division had been petitioned for on several occasions, and on the 3d of February, 1809, the act making the division passed Congress. It provided that on and after the 1st day of March, 1809, all that part of the Territory lying west of the Wabash River, and a line running due north from Vincennes, should constitute the Territory of Illinois. Another act extended the right of suffrage, and gave to the Legislature the right to district the Territory for legislative purposes, and also provided that the House of Representatives should consist of not less than nine members. Information of the passage of this act reached the Governor, but it is evident he was not informed of all of its provisions, for a short time before the receipt of a copy of the act, he issued his proclamation for an election to be held on the 22d day of May, and he fixed the number of members of the House to be elected at eight, one less than the minimum number prescribed by the act. He also called

for the election of a Congressional delegate at the same time. When the full text of the act of Congress was received, he permitted the election to take place. No motive for this has ever been discovered, but it is probable he desired to get the voice of the people on the introduction of slavery, as that was the issue then being fought out between the candidates for delegate to Congress. The election took place and the members chosen to the Legislature met, pursuant to the call of the Governor, in October. At once doubts arose as to whether it was a legal body, and after several days' wrangling the following memorial to Congress was adopted:

"Your petitioners state that, in the year 1805, there was a Legislature organized under a law dividing the territory northwest of the Ohio River; that, on the 26th day of October, 1808, the Governor dissolved the said legislature. On the 3d day of February, 1809, the law of Congress passed, dividing the Indiana Territory; and that on the 4th day of April, 1809, the governor of the territory issued his proclamation for the election of the additional members of the House of Representatives. Also, on the 27th of February, 1809, the law passed extending the right of suffrage to the citizens of Indiana, and declaring how the legislature shall be formed after the passage of said law; that is, the General Assembly should apportion the members of the House of Representatives, to consist of not less than nine, nor more than twelve. This law was evidently predicated upon the principle that a legislature was in existence at the time of its passage, or that a legislature might be convened under the authority of the governor's proclamation; but the fact was different, for the old legislature was doubly dissolved (if this expression may be allowed); first, by the Governor, as above stated; secondly, by the division of the territory, which struck off three members of the house of representatives, and two of the legislative council. Thus, there was no legislature in being to make the apportionment agreeably to the said act of Congress. Now, the principal doubt that exists in the minds of your petitioners is, how the legislature [is] to be brought into being, so as to organize the new legislature under the act of Congress, as above stated. On the first Monday of April,

1809, the Governor, by his proclamation, directed that an election be held for members of the house of representatives, at which election there were four members elected—to-wit: two in the county of Knox; one in the county of Dearborn; and one in the county of Clark. On the 4th of April, 1809 (six days before the above law of Congress arrived here), the Governor issued his writs of election, for an election to be held on the 22d of May, for five councilors and four more representatives, having himself made the apportionment. He gave an additional member to the county of Knox; one to the county of Dearborn; one to the county of Clark; and one to the new county of Harrison—making, in the whole, only eight members in the house of representatives. Under these dubious circumstances, the Governor issued his proclamation, convening, on the 16th of the present month, the members of the legislative council, elected as above stated; and the members elected to serve in the house of representatives. Agreeably to the aforesaid proclamation, the legislative council and the members elected to the house of representatives convened; and the minority of the house of representatives, not conceiving themselves authorized to go on to legislative business, the legislature agreed to postpone doing any business, in a legislative capacity, except apportioning an additional member to make up the number, nine, agreeably to the said act of Congress, extending the right of suffrage to the citizens of this territory. From this view of the subject, your petitioners humbly pray, that a law may be passed legalizing the above apportionment; so that a legislature may be organized under the present law of Congress, extending the right of suffrage to Indiana, so soon as the governor of this territory may be officially informed of the same. Or, if Congress doubt of their authority to legalize the above proceedings, on the ground of the laws having an ex post facto operation, then to pass a law authorizing, expressly, the Governor to organize a legislature upon any plan which, to them may seem proper.”

On the same day the Legislature petitioned the Governor to dissolve the General Assembly to await the action of Congress, which was done, the Governor, however, holding that the Legislature had been legally elected. When

the matter was brought to the attention of Congress through the petition recited, it held the election illegal, and authorized the Governor to apportion the Territory and order a new election.

In 1810 the first complete census of Indiana was taken. According to it the population amounted to 24,520. There were in the Territory thirty-three grist mills, fourteen saw mills, eighteen tanneries, twenty-eight distilleries, three powder mills, 1256 looms, and 1350 spinning wheels. The value of Indiana manufactures was estimated as follows: Woolen, cotton, hempen and flaxen cloths and mixtures, \$159,052. Cotton and wool, spun in mills, \$150; nails, \$4000; leather tanned, \$9300; products of distilleries, \$16,230; gun powder, \$1800; wine, \$6000. There was also manufactured in the State 50,000 pounds of maple sugar.

At the session of the legislature in 1810 a petition was sent to Congress asking for permission to locate a certain quantity of lands lying on the main fork of White River for a permanent seat of government. William Prince, John Hadden, James Smith, Harvey Heth, Davis Floyd, William McFarland, Benjamin McCartey, Richard Maxwell, and Elijah Sparks, were appointed commissioners for the purpose of selecting a new site for the seat of government of Indiana.

At that time nothing came of the petition, and in 1813 the Legislature removed the seat of government from Vincennes to Corydon. In February of that year President Madison nominated for Governor of the Territory Thomas Posey, General Harrison having been made Commander-in-Chief of the United States forces in the West.

At the time of his appointment Mr. Posey was a Senator from Louisiana. Governor Posey was a Virginian by birth. In 1774 he took part in Dunmore's expedition against the Indians. He served during the Revolutionary War under Gates, Washington and Wayne. He was at the storming of Stony Point and was the first to give the watchword, "The Fort's our own." He remained with the army after the close of the war, and when General Anthony Wayne was sent to the Northwest Territory, Posey was one of his Lieutenants. He removed to Louisiana in 1810 and was appointed by the Governor of that State to a seat in the

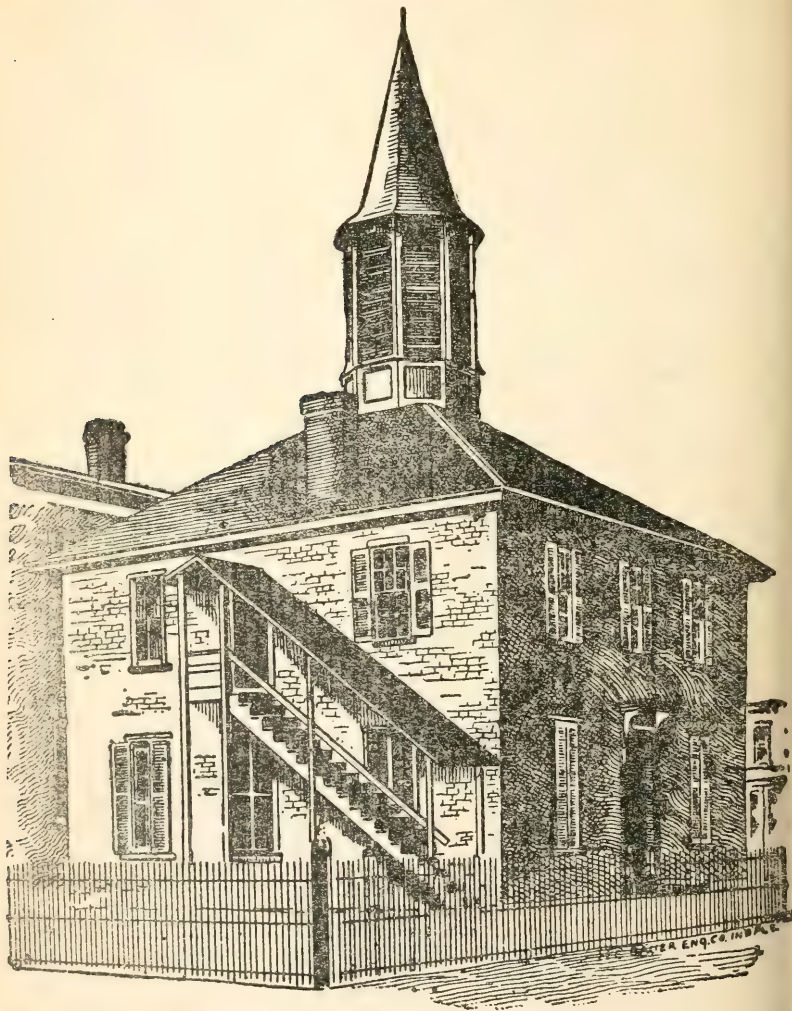
United States Senate. He served as Governor of Indiana until it was admitted into the Union as a State, when he removed to Illinois, where he died in 1818.

Governor Posey arrived at Vincennes on the 25th of May, 1813, and at once entered upon the discharge of his duties. In December of that year the Legislature met at Corydon, when Governor Posey delivered his first message. In this message the following passage appears: "The present crisis is awful, and big with great events. Our land and Nation is involved in the common calamity of war. But we are under the protecting care of the beneficent Being who has, on a former occasion, brought us in safety through an arduous struggle, and placed us on a foundation of independence, freedom, and happiness. He will not suffer to be taken from us what He, in His great wisdom, has thought proper to confer and bless us with, if we make wise and virtuous use of His good gifts."

The State House, built for the use of the Territorial Legislature and officers, was erected at Corydon, in 1811, but not entirely completed until 1815. It still stands. It is forty feet square, and two stories high. The material is blue limestone, taken from the neighboring hills. The walls of the first story are two and one-half feet thick, and of the second story two feet, showing that it was intended to last. The lower story was used as a hall for the House of Representatives, while the Senate occupied one of the two rooms in the second story. In this building the Legislature met annually until 1825.

On the 14th of December, 1815, the Territorial Legislature adopted a memorial asking Congress to admit Indiana into the Union as a State. The memorial recited that the ordinance for the government of the Territory provided that whenever there should be sixty thousand free white inhabitants in the Territory it should be admitted into the Union on an equal footing with the original States, and that more than the requisite number of inhabitants were then residing in the Territory. The memorial emphasized again in the following passage the opposition to slavery which had been growing up: "And whereas, the inhabitants of this territory are principally composed of emigrants from every part of the Union, and as various in their cus-

toms and sentiments as in their persons, we think it prudent, at this time, to express to the general government our attachment to the fundamental principles of legisla-



TERRITORIAL CAPITOL AT CORYDON.

tion prescribed by Congress in their ordinance for the government of this territory, particularly as respects personal

freedom and involuntary servitude, and hope they may be continued as the basis of the constitution."

The census taken by order of the Legislature gave to the various Counties a population as follows:

Counties.	Voters.	Total.
Wayne	1225	6407
Franklin	1430	7370
Dearborn	902	4424
Switzerland	477	1832
Jefferson	874	4270
Clark	1387	7150
Washington	1420	7317
Harrison	1056	6975
Knox	1391	8068
Gibson	1100	5330
Posey	320	1619
Warrick	280	1415
Perry	250	1720
	<hr/> 12,112	<hr/> 63,897

Congress passed an enabling act authorizing an election to be held on the 1st Monday of May, 1816, for the election of delegates to a convention to frame a State Constitution. The election was duly held and delegates to the convention chosen. The convention began its session at Corydon, on the 10th of June, 1816, and concluded its work and adjourned on the 29th of the same month. Jonathan Jennings was president of the convention and William Hendricks, secretary. The last work of the convention was to pass an ordinance accepting the conditions fixed in the act of Congress of April 19, 1816, in respect to boundaries, jurisdiction, school lands, salt springs, lands for a permanent seat for the State Government, etc. The rapid work and the clearness and conciseness of the language used, the just and comprehensive provisions for the maintenance of civil and religious liberty, prove that the men selected to frame the first constitution of Indiana were well qualified in every way for the business they had in hand.

When the members of the Constitutional Convention

met at Corydon on June 10, 1816, to deliberate upon the articles of the organic law to be adopted for the government of the new State, they held most of their meetings



THE CONSTITUTIONAL ELM.

under the shade of a huge elm tree, on the banks of Big Indian creek, some several hundred feet northwest of the State House. The old elm tree still stands in all its grandeur. It spreads one hundred and twenty-four feet from tip to tip of its branches, and is more than fifty feet high. It is cherished by the people of Corydon as one of their historical landmarks.

By the ordinance of Congress, providing for the formation of a State Constitution by the people of Indiana Territory, it was declared that the new State should be "bounded on the east by the meridian line which forms the western boundary of the State of Ohio, being a north line from

the mouth of the Miami; on the south by the Ohio River, from the mouth of the Great Miami to the mouth of the River Wabash; on the west by a line drawn along the middle of the Wabash from its mouth to a point where a due north line drawn from the town of Vincennes would last touch the northwestern shore of said river, and from thence, by a due north line until the same shall intersect an east and west line drawn through a point ten miles north of the southern extreme of Lake Michigan; on the north by the said east and west line until the same shall intersect the first mentioned meridian line which forms the western boundary of the State of Ohio."

The last action of the convention of June was to adopt the following:

"Be it ordained by the Representatives of the people of the Territory of Indiana, in convention met at Corydon, on Monday, the 10th day of June, in the year of our Lord, eighteen hundred and sixteen, that we do for ourselves and our posterity, agree, determine, declare and ordain, that we will, and do hereby accept the propositions of the Congress of the United States, as made and contained in their act of the 19th day of April, eighteen hundred and sixteen, entitled 'An act to enable the people of Indiana Territory to form a State Government and Constitution for the admission of such State into the Union, on an equal footing with the original States.'

"And we do further, for ourselves and our posterity, hereby ratify, confirm and establish the boundaries of the said State of Indiana as fixed, prescribed, laid down, and established in the act of Congress aforesaid; and we do also further, for ourselves and our posterity, hereby decree, determine, declare and ordain, that each and every tract of land sold by the United States, lying within the said State, and which shall be sold from and after the first day of December next, shall be and remain exempt from any tax, laid by order or under any authority of the said State of Indiana, or by or under the authority of the General Assembly thereof; whether for State, County or Township, or any purpose whatever, for the term of five years from and after the day of sale of any such tract of land; and we do moreover for ourselves, and our posterity, hereby de-

clare and ordain that this ordinance and every part thereof shall forever remain irrevocable and inviolate without the consent of the United States in Congress assembled, first had and obtained for the alteration thereof, or any part thereof."

It would look as if the act of Congress fixing the boundaries of the State was clear enough not to cause any confusion or dispute, yet at one time and another both Ohio and Michigan have set up claims to a part of the territory thus set apart to form the State of Indiana. Several times Ohio has set up a claim to a strip of land along the eastern boundary. This confusion, or claim, arose from a difference between the line as described in the act of April 19, 1816, and that of May 7, 1800, dividing the territory northwest of the Ohio River into two districts. By that act Congress declared, "that from and after the fourth day of July next, all that part of the territory of the United States northwest of the Ohio River, which lies to the westward of a line beginning at the Ohio opposite to the mouth of Kentucky River, and running thence to Fort Recovery, and thence north until it shall intersect the territorial line between the United States and Canada, shall, for the purpose of temporary government, constitute a separate territory, and be called the Indiana territory."

The mouth of the Kentucky River is several miles west of that of the Great Miami. The line provided for in the act of May 7, 1800, would not have been a due north and south line, but would have run east of north until it reached Fort Recovery, on the headwaters of the Wabash, and from thence it was to run due north. Such a line as that proposed by the act of May 7, 1800, would have given to Ohio quite a strip along the southeastern side of Indiana, while it would have added to Indiana some of the territory now in Ohio, north of Fort Recovery. By Article 5, of the Ordinance of 1787, it was provided that the territory northwest of the Ohio should eventually be divided into not less than three, nor more than five States, and the boundary lines of three of those States were fixed and determined, and in that article it was provided that the line dividing what are now the States of Indiana and Ohio should begin at the mouth of the Great Miami, and run due north,

being the same line as that fixed by the act of April 19, 1816. In dividing the territory into two districts Congress paid some attention to the dividing lines between the lands which had been ceded by the Indians and those which still remained in possession of the original occupants. When it came time to define the boundaries of the State of Ohio, the line between the lands of the United States and those of the Indians had been materially changed, so Congress could drop back to the lines established in the ordinance of compact between the Government and the State of Virginia.

The contention of the State of Michigan arose from a similar confusion. In 1805, it was deemed best by Congress to again divide the territory into two districts, and by an act approved January 11, of that year, the Territory of Indiana was divided, and that of Michigan formed. According to this act of Congress, the Territory of Michigan was formed out of "all that part of the Indiana territory which lies north of a line drawn east from the southerly bend of Lake Michigan, until it shall intersect Lake Erie, and east of a line drawn from the said southerly bend through the middle of said lake to its northern extremity, and thence due north to the northern boundary of the United States." Michigan assumed that the United States had no right to take any part of the territory set off under that name. Michigan at that time was a Territory, under the direct government of Congress, and not a State organization. No serious attention has ever been paid to these claims. They have amused the people of Michigan and Ohio for awhile, at different times, while Indiana has gone on exercising jurisdiction over the disputed territory.

Writs of election were issued to the several counties for an election to be held for the choosing of a Governor, Lieutenant Governor, and member of Congress. The contestants for the office of Governor were Jonathan Jennings, then delegate in Congress, and Thomas Posey, Governor of the Territory. Jennings received 5211 votes and Posey 3934. Christopher Harrison was elected Lieutenant Governor, and William Hendricks member of Congress. Jonathan Jennings was born in New Jersey in 1784. He was liberally educated and began the study of law, but before

being admitted to the bar left his then home in Pennsylvania, and started for Indiana Territory. Arriving at Pittsburg he took passage on a flat boat and floated down the Ohio River to Jeffersonville. He resumed his legal studies and was soon admitted to the bar. Shortly afterward he was made Clerk of the Territorial Legislature, and in 1809 entered upon the race for delegate to Congress against Thomas Randolph, then Attorney General of the Territory. The contest was an exceedingly exciting one, the question at issue being that of slavery. Governor Harrison threw all of his influence to Randolph, but Jennings was elected, beating his opponent twenty-six votes. This election of Jennings fixed the status of Indiana on the slavery question, for had Randolph been elected there is no doubt that the prohibitory clause of the Ordinance of 1787 would have been repealed. Randolph contested the seat, but it finally was decided in favor of Jennings. In 1811 Mr. Jennings was re-elected to Congress, and again in 1813, and in 1816 was elected first Governor of the State. While acting as Governor, in 1818, President Monroe appointed Governor Jennings one of the Commissioners to negotiate a treaty with the Indians. While he was absent from Corydon on that duty, Lieutenant Governor Harrison went to Corydon, took possession of the executive office, and performed the duties of Governor. The constitution prohibited the Governor from holding any office under the United States and Mr. Harrison construed the acceptance by Governor Jennings of the appointment to treat with the Indians as a vacation of his office of Governor. Governor Jennings did not take this view of it and demanded that Harrison surrender to him possession of the office, which he refused to do. This contest produced considerable trouble, both with the other State officers and with the Legislature. On its assembling both Houses of the Legislature recognized Mr. Harrison as the real Governor, but the next day a committee was appointed to investigate the trouble in the executive department. After the investigation the committee reported in favor of recognizing Governor Jennings and the report was adopted by a vote of 15 yeas, to 13 nays. Lieutenant Governor Harrison at once resigned his office, and the next year ran against Mr. Jennings for Gov-

error, but was badly beaten, receiving only 2008 votes out of a total of 11,256.

In 1822 Governor Jennings was elected to Congress from the second district and resigned his office of Governor. He was re-elected to Congress continuously until 1830, when he was defeated by General John C. Carr. His defeat was occasioned by his convivial habits, his appetite for liquor growing upon him to such a degree as to render him oftentimes unfit for public duty. On retiring from Congress he went to live upon his farm near Charlestown, and only once afterward did he perform any public duty. In 1832 President Jackson appointed Jennings, Dr. John W. Davis and Moses Crum, commissioners to treat with the Indians for their lands in Northern Indiana and southern Michigan. The treaty point was near where the town of Huntington now stands. The following story is told of the occasion by John H. B. Nowland, who was present at the time:

"During the preliminary council, Dr. Davis, who was a pompous, big-feeling man, said something that gave offense to Aubanaubee, one of the head chiefs of the Pottawattamies. The chief addressed Governor Jennings, saying: 'Does our great Father intend to insult us by sending such men to treat with us? Why did he not send such men as Generals Cass and Tipton? You (pointing to the Governor), good man and know how to treat us. (Pointing to Crum.) He chipped beef for the squaws at Wabash' (meaning that Crum was the beef contractor at the treaty of 1826). Then pointing to Davis, he said: 'Big man and dam fool.' The chief then spoke a few words to the Pottawattamies present, who gave one of their peculiar yells and left the council house, and could only be induced to return after several days, and then only through the great influence of Governor Jennings."

Governor Jennings died on his farm on July 26, 1834. The next day his body was put in a common farm wagon and taken to Charlestown for burial. The State has since erected a handsome monument to mark his grave. Governor Jennings was a man of polished manners, and in the prime of his popularity he wielded more influence with the people of the State than any other man then living.

Christopher Harrison, who was the first Lieutenant Governor of the State, was a man of very eccentric habits. He was a native of Maryland. In his youth he was in the employ of Mr. Patterson, one of the great merchants of Baltimore, and it is said was a lover of Miss Patterson, who afterward became the wife of Jerome Bonaparte. Whatever may be the truth about that, he suddenly left Maryland and emigrated to Indiana Territory. He built himself a log cabin on the bluffs near Hanover, in Jefferson County, and there lived the life of a hermit for a number of years. He lived by hunting until 1815. He was a man of good education and of cultivated mind, and was a painter of more than ordinary merit. In 1815 he gave up his hermit life, removed to Salem, and began merchandising. While at Salem he lived alone. He was passionately fond of flowers and his garden fairly reveled in roses, and it was a favorite place for the young people, especially children. He made the flowers into bouquets and gave them away freely. He was the friend of every child in the town. In 1816 he was elected Lieutenant Governor, but resigned, as has already been told. In 1820 he was elected by the Legislature as one of the Commissioners to lay off and survey the site for the new capital. He was the only one of the Commissioners who attended and he assumed all the duties. About 1830 he returned to Maryland and died there in 1863. He was never married.

The retiring officers of the Territory were General Thomas Posey, Governor, and General John Gibson, Secretary. We have already given a sketch of Governor Posey. John Gibson, who was the Secretary of the Territory from its organization to 1816, when it was admitted as a State, and several times its acting Governor, came from fighting stock. He was born in 1740 at Lancaster, Pennsylvania. At the age of eighteen he joined the troops of General Forbes, in an expedition against Fort Du Quesne. The expedition was successful, resulting in the capture of the fort, and when peace was declared young Gibson settled at the fort as an Indian trader. Not long afterward he was captured by the Indians, and was sentenced by them to death at the stake, but an old squaw took a fancy to the young pale face and adopted him, thus saving his life. He

remained with the Indians for several years, taking as his Indian wife a sister of Logan the great chief. Gibson finally left the Indians and returned to Fort Pitt, and resumed business as a trader. In 1774 he accompanied the expedition of Lord Dunmore, and was sent by that officer on a mission to Logan, and it was to him Logan made the speech which has rendered his name immortal. Gibson's Indian wife was one of the members of Logan's family that were slaughtered, as Logan believed, by Colonel Cresap, which was the origin of the Cresap war.

On the breaking out of the Revolutionary War, Gibson raised a regiment for the patriot army. He served throughout the war with great distinction, having command of the western frontier. In 1788 he was a member of the convention which framed the first constitution of Pennsylvania, and served several years as one of the Judges of that State. When the Territory of Indiana was created he was appointed Secretary, and acted as Governor for several months until the arrival of Governor Harrison. Again in 1812, when Harrison was absent fighting the Indians, he was the acting Governor, and displayed great energy in preparing to resist the encroachments of the Indians, and to relieve Captain Zachary Taylor, who was beleaguered at Fort Harrison. He was present with Harrison at the historical interview with Tecumseh, when the Indian chief intended to attack Harrison. Gibson was proficient in the Indian language and understood the words of Tecumseh to his followers, and at once ordered the guard forward, which prevented a massacre by the Indians. Not long after his retirement from the office of Secretary of the Territory he removed to Pittsburg, where he died in 1822.

The first session of the Legislature of the State of Indiana, opened at Corydon on the 4th of November, 1816. Isaac Blackford was elected Speaker of the House. It was an important session. There was much to do. The State was rapidly increasing in population, and the new settlements were spreading out in every direction. All the affairs of the people had been looked after by the General Government, but now the people were to govern themselves. The State Constitution was approved by Congress, and Indiana was formally admitted into the Union on the

11th of December. By the constitution the Legislature had to elect the other State officers, and before the close of the session Robert A. New was elected Secretary of State; William H. Lilly, Auditor of Public Accounts; and Daniel G. Lane, Treasurer of State. James Noble and Waller Taylor were elected to represent the State in the United States Senate.

James Noble was long one of the leading men of Indiana. He was, like so many others of those who became notable in the early history of Indiana, a Virginian by birth. When James was but a lad his father removed to Kentucky. When but seventeen years of age James concluded it was time to start out in life for himself, and the first thing he did was to take a wife. He had no settled occupation, but being of strong mind, and ambitious, he entered upon the study of law soon after his marriage. He finished his legal studies in Kentucky and chose for his future home Brookville, Indiana. At that time Brookville was the most important town in eastern Indiana, and counted among its lawyers quite a number who afterward became the leading men of the State. Mr. Noble was not long in securing a good practice, for he early became known as one of the best jury lawyers in the country. Like all ambitious young lawyers of those days, he entered into politics, and soon demonstrated that he was unrivaled on the stump. He was a member of the constitutional convention of 1816, and took a prominent part in the deliberations of that body. He was elected a member of the first State Legislature, and three days after its organization was chosen Senator in Congress. He served as Senator until 1831, when he died at Washington, while attending a session of that body. During his service as Senator he became very popular with his colleagues and wielded a wide influence.

Waller Taylor, the other Senator, was also a Virginian. He came into the Territory very early, and at once ranked himself as one of the steadfast friends of Governor Harrison, and was one of the most determined advocates of slavery. He was a man of strong likes, and equally strong dislikes. He was never very choice in the language he used against an opponent. He was made one of the Territorial

Judges by Governor Harrison, and served in that capacity for several years. When the slavery question got into politics and was to be fought over at the polls, he took sides with Mr. Randolph, who was contesting the race for Congress with Jonathan Jennings, the candidate of the anti-slavery people. He used every effort to force Jennings to challenge him to a duel, but in that he failed. Two years afterward he was the opposing candidate against Mr. Jennings, but was very badly defeated. He served in the Senate until 1825.

In October, 1818, the United States, by a treaty with the Delaware Indians, secured all the lands claimed by those Indians in the boundaries of Indiana, and by an act passed in 1819 Congress gave to the State four sections of land to be located upon any public land that was unsold, upon which to found a site for the permanent capital of the State. At its session in 1820 the Legislature appointed ten commissioners to make selection of the lands. In May of that year the Commissioners met at the house of William Conner, on the west fork of White River, in what is now Hamilton County. On the 7th of June the site was selected, and the selection was confirmed by the Legislature at its next session, and the name of "Indianapolis" was given to this new city which was to be built in the wilderness. Then, it was far away from any of the settlements, its nearest store being sixty miles away, on the Whitewater. It was near the geographical center of the State, and the Commissioners fondly believed that in time it would be the center of population. The new town was laid off and lots ordered sold, but it was not until 1825 that the capital was finally removed from Corydon.

By 1850 it was seen that the constitution of the State needed revision in several important points, and a convention for that purpose was ordered. The convention was held in Indianapolis, beginning its sessions on the 7th day of October, 1850. It was composed of one hundred and fifty members. The convention continued its sessions, from day to day, until the 10th of February, 1851, when it finally adjourned. The new constitution was submitted to the people for ratification. It received 109,319 votes, while 26,755 votes were cast against it. The thirteenth article,

was submitted to a separate vote and was adopted as a part of the constitution, receiving 109,976 affirmative votes, against 21,066 in the negative. This article read as follows:

"Section 1.—No negro or mulatto shall come into, or settle in the State, after the adoption of this constitution.

"Section 2.—All contracts made with any negro or mulatto coming into the State, contrary to the provision of the foregoing section, shall be void; and any person who shall employ such negro or mulatto, or otherwise encourage him to remain in the State, shall be fined in any sum not less than ten dollars, nor more than five hundred dollars.

"Section 3.—All fines which may be collected for a violation of the provisions of this article, or of any law which may hereafter be passed for the purpose of carrying the same into execution, shall be set apart and appropriated for the colonization of such negroes and mulattos, and their descendants, as may be in the State at the adoption of this constitution and may be willing to emigrate.

"Section 4.—The General Assembly shall pass laws to carry out the provisions of this article."

This article was stricken out by a vote of the people in 1881. As originally adopted the right of suffrage was limited by the constitution to white males over the age of twenty-one, and representation in the General Assembly was based upon the number of white males in the State over the age of twenty-one. In 1881, the word "white" was stricken out of all those sections.

In closing this chapter on the early organization of the State, it will be proper to say something of William Hendricks, the State's first representative in Congress. More especially should this be done, as Mr. Hendricks was one of those men who had much to do with shaping the character of the State, and casting it on the lines of prosperity. Mr. Hendricks was born in Pennsylvania in 1783. Upon reaching manhood he removed to Cincinnati, and remained there a year or two engaged in the study of the law. In 1814 he located at Madison, Indiana, and that year was elected a member of the Territorial House of Representatives, and was chosen Speaker of that body. Two years

later he was a member of the constitutional convention and took an active part in all the deliberations of that body.

At the first election for a member of Congress, held under the State government, he was elected. He was twice re-elected and in 1822 was elected Governor of the State, without opposition, receiving all the votes that were cast. He served as Governor until February 12, 1825, when he was elected a member of the United States Senate. He was re-elected in 1831, and at the expiration of his term retired to private life. When he came to Indiana he brought with him the outfit of a printing office, and began the publication of a weekly paper, and it was the ability he displayed in conducting this paper that laid the foundations of his political fortune. While he was a member of the Senate, his wife went with him to Washington on one occasion, riding on horseback the entire distance between Madison and Washington, and carrying an infant child in her arms. Senator Hendricks was a great friend of education, and was ever ready to help any educational enterprise that was called to his attention. On the 16th of May, 1850, he rode out to his farm, a short distance from Madison, to oversee the building of a family vault. While there he was taken sick and died soon afterward. Two of his sons were killed in the Civil War.

CHAPTER VIII.

INDIAN TITLES TO LANDS—HOW EXTINGUISHED.

When France claimed jurisdiction over the vast territory between the Mississippi and the lakes, she set up no claim to the land itself, but left that in the hands of the original possessors, the Indians. The French made no efforts to dispossess the Indians, nor even to purchase or obtain grants of land. They were satisfied with the right to establish trading posts, without asking for land. In fact they had no use for land. Their traders lived among the Indians and lived as the Indians did. Some years after the first actual settlers had made their homes at Vincennes, the Miami Indians granted a small tract of land immediately around the Post for the use of the settlers. This grant was in common to all the settlers, and was so held, although different commanders did at various times make grants to a few individuals out of the general domain. So, when France ceded the territory to Great Britain, she ceded it with all the rights the Indians had, unimpaired, and the little tract around Vincennes, and a similar tract at Kaskaskia, was all the land not directly belonging to the Indians. It was the fear that the English would dispossess them of their rights in the land, under color of the treaty with France, that aroused the Indians to renewed depredations, and finally to open war.

The British Government was willing to concede the claims of the Indians, but the colonists were not, and settlements soon began in the territory. General Gage, in

command of the forces of the King in America, and acting as the agent of his Government, issued a proclamation ordering all settlers in the territory of the Indians to abandon their settlements. The British Government endeavored to prevent any new settlements west of the Alleghany Mountains, and rejected several propositions for establishing colonies in the interior. But the new settlements continued to be made, and the commandant at Fort Chartres, in the Illinois country, made several large grants of land to English traders, declaring that the grants were made because "the cultivation of lands not then appropriated, was essentially necessary and useful toward the better peopling and settlement of said country, as well as highly advantageous to his majesty's service, in the raising, producing, and supplying provisions to his majesty's troops, then stationed, or thereafter to be stationed, in the said country of Illinois." In 1773, at Kaskaskia, an association of traders was formed, for the purchase of land from the Indians. The association was known as "The Illinois Land Company." This company, by deed of purchase from several Indian chiefs, obtained a grant of two large tracts of land, embracing about the whole of the present State of Illinois. The consideration given for these grants was five shillings in money and a supply of coarse material for clothing, brass kettles, powder, lead, gun flints, paints, etc., the whole being worth, probably, only a few hundred dollars.

In 1775 Governor Dunmore, of Virginia, ordered that all vacant lands of his majesty, within the colony of Virginia, should be surveyed and laid out in lots of from one hundred to one thousand acres, for public sale. Virginia, at that time, laid claim to all the northwestern territory. In the same year the "Wabash Land Company," of which Governor Dunmore was a stockholder, was formed, and purchased from the Piankashaw Indians two immense tracts of land. The two tracts were described in the deed as follows: "One tract or parcel of land situate, lying and being on both sides of the Ouabache River, beginning at the mouth of a rivulet called Riviere du Chat, or Cat River, where it empties itself into the Ouabache River aforesaid, being about fifty-two leagues distant from and above Post

St. Vincent aforesaid; thence down the Ouabache, by the several courses thereof, to a place called Point Coupee (about twelve leagues above Post St. Vincent), being forty leagues, or thereabouts, in length on the said river Ouabache, from the place of beginning, with forty leagues in width or breadth on the east side, and thirty leagues in width or breadth on the west side of the Ouabache River aforesaid; to be continued along from the place of beginning to Point Coupee aforesaid. And also one other tract or parcel of land, situated, lying and being on both sides of the Ouabache River aforesaid, beginning from the mouth of White River, where it empties itself into the Ouabache River (about twelve leagues below Post St. Vincent), thence down the Ouabache River, by the several courses thereof, until it empties itself into the Ohio River, being from the said White River to the Ohio, fifty-three leagues in length, or thereabouts, be the same more or less, with forty leagues in width or breadth on the east side, and thirty leagues in width or breadth on the west side, of the Ouabache River aforesaid; (the intermediate space of twenty-four leagues, or thereabouts, between Point Coupee and the mouth of the White River aforesaid, being reserved for the use of the inhabitants of Post St. Vincent aforesaid, with the same width or breadth on both sides of the Ouabache River as is hereby granted in the two several tracts of land above bounded and described)." The deed further covenanted that the grantees should have the full right to navigate the Ouabache River and tributary streams, forever. These two tracts were about ninety leagues in length by seventy leagues in breadth, and contained about thirty-seven million five hundred thousand acres. The reader may be curious to know what was given for all these millions of acres, with their ores, their timber, and their water courses. Here is the list, as recorded in the deed:

"Four hundred blankets, twenty-two pieces of stroud, two hundred and fifty shirts, twelve gross of star gartering, one hundred and twenty pieces of ribbon, twenty-four pounds of vermilion, eighteen pairs velvet laced housings, one piece of malton, fifty-two fusils, thirty-five dozen large buckhorn-handle knives, forty dozen couteau knives, five hundred pounds of brass kettles, ten thousand gun flints,

six hundred pounds of gunpowder, two thousand pounds of lead, four hundred pounds of tobacco, forty bushels of salt, three thousand pounds of flour, three horses; also the following quantities of silverware, viz.: eleven very large arm-bands, forty wristbands, six whole moons, six half moons, nine ear-wheels, forty-six large crosses, twenty-nine hair-pipes, sixty pairs of earbobs, twenty dozen small crosses, twenty dozen nose crosses and one hundred and ten dozen brooches."

Verily, Indian lands were cheap in those days. About the time these purchases were made, and before the purchasers could establish any English colony thereon, the war between the colonies and the mother country broke out. At the conclusion of the Revolutionary War the two companies, having been united under the name of the "United Illinois and Wabash Land Companies," applied to Congress for a confirmation of the grants made to them. They continued their efforts to obtain confirmation until 1810 without success. When the colonies made peace with England, and secured their independence, Congress assumed that the treaty gave to the United States the full right to all the territory transferred, and that if the Indians had formerly possessed any right to the lands, that right had been forfeited by acts of warfare by the Indians against the colonies, and the Government made no movement toward the purchase of the lands from the Indians, but began to seek treaties of peace with them, fixing the boundary lines to suit the whites. In this way the Government obtained from the Iroquois all their claim to the western territory north and south of the Ohio, which claim was at least very questionable. Several treaties were made, at one time or another, with some of the chiefs of the various tribes, but the Indians generally repudiated them. At the great council held with the Indians by General Wayne, at Greenville, in 1795, General Wayne, assuming that all the former treaties wherein boundaries were fixed, were legal and binding, set up a claim for the Government to certain lands. This was resisted by all the chiefs present. Masas, a distinguished chief of the Chippewas, spoke as follows for his tribe:

"Elder Brother: When you yesterday read to us the

treaty of Muskingum, I understood you clearly. At that treaty we had not good interpreters, and were left partly unacquainted with many particulars of it. I was surprised when I heard your voice, through a good interpreter, say that we had received presents and compensation for those lands which were thereby ceded. I tell you now, that we, the three fires, were never informed of it. If our uncles, the Wyandots, and grandfathers, the Delawares, have received such presents, they have kept them to themselves. I always thought that we, the Ottawas, Chippewas and Pottawattamies, were the true owners of those lands, but now I find that new masters have undertaken to dispose of them, so that at this day, we do not know to whom they, of right, belong. We never received any compensation for them. I don't know how it is, but ever since that treaty we have become objects of pity, and our fires have been retiring from the country. Now, elder brother, you see we are objects of compassion; and have pity on our weakness and misfortunes, and since you have purchased these lands, we cede them to you. They are yours. Perhaps at a future day your younger brothers may be made happy by becoming your children, should you extend to us your paternal protection."

Little Turtle, for the Miamis, said:

"I wish to ask of you and my brothers present, one question. I would be glad to know what lands have been ceded to you, as I am uninformed in this particular. I expect that the lands of the Wabash, and in this country, belong to me and my people. I now take the opportunity to inform my brothers of the United States, and others present, that there are men of sense and understanding among my people, as well as among theirs, and that these lands were disposed of without our knowledge or consent. I was yesterday surprised, when I heard from our forefathers, the Delawares, that these lands had been ceded by the British to the Americans, when the former were beaten by, and made peace with the latter, because you had before told us that it was the Wyandots, Delawares, Chippewas, Pottawattamies, and Saukeys, who had made this cession."

On the next day Little Turtle again took the floor, and made a long address, in which he announced definitely

what his tribe claimed, and controverted the claims of the other tribes and the Americans. He said:

“General Wayne: I wish you will pay attention to what I now say to you. I wish to inform you where your younger brothers, the Miamis, live, and, also, the Pottawattamies, of St. Joseph, together with the Wabash Indians. You have pointed out to us the boundary line between the Indians and the United States, but I now take the liberty to inform you that that line cuts off from the Indians a large portion of country which has been enjoyed by my forefathers, time immemorial, without molestation or dispute. The print of my ancestors’ houses are everywhere to be seen in this portion. I was a little astonished at hearing you, and my brothers who are now present, telling each other what business you had transacted together heretofore at Muskingum, concerning this country. It is well known by all my brothers present, that my forefather kindled the first fire at Detroit; from thence he extended his lines to the headwaters of the Scioto; from thence to its mouth; from thence down the Ohio to the mouth of the Wabash; and from thence to Chicago, on Lake Michigan; at this place I first saw my elder brothers, the Shawnees. I have now informed you of the boundaries of the Miami nation, where the Great Spirit placed my forefathers a long time ago, and charged them not to sell or part with their lands, but to preserve them for his posterity. This charge has been handed down to me. I was much surprised that my other brothers differed so much from me on this subject. For their conduct would lead one to suppose that the Great Spirit and their forefathers, had not given them the same charge that was given to me, but, on the contrary had directed them to sell their lands to any white man who wore a hat, as soon as he should ask it of them. Now, elder brother, your younger brothers, the Miamis, have pointed out to you their country, and also to our brothers present. When I hear your remarks and proposals on the subject, I will be ready to give you an answer. I came with an expectation of hearing you say good things, but I have not yet heard what I expected.”

Tarke, chief of the Wyandots, said:

“Elder Brother: Now, listen to us. The Great Spirit

above has appointed this day for us to meet together. I shall now deliver my sentiments to you, the fifteen fires. I view you lying in a gore of blood. It is me, an Indian, who has caused it. Our tomahawk yet remains in your head. The English gave it to me to place there. Elder brother, I now take the tomahawk out of your head. But, with so much care that you shall not feel pain or injury. I will now tear a big tree up by the roots, and throw the hatchet into the cavity which they occupied, where the waters will wash it away where it cannot be found. Now, I have buried the hatchet and I expect that none of my color will ever again find it out. I now tell you, that no one in particular can justly claim this ground; it belongs in common to us all; no earthly being has an exclusive right to it. The Great Spirit above is the true and only owner of this soil, and he has given us all an equal right to it."

By the treaty negotiated with the Indians at Greenville, by General Wayne, the following tracts of land in the limits of Indiana were ceded by the Indians to the United States:

No. 1.—A tract lying east of a line running from opposite the mouth of Kentucky River, in a northerly direction to Fort Recovery in Ohio, and which forms a small portion of the western end of the cession of the first paragraph of Article III., treaty of August 3, 1795. The bulk of the cession is in Ohio.

No. 2.—Six miles square at the confluence of the St. Mary and St. Joseph Rivers, including Fort Wayne.

No. 3.—Two miles square on the Wabash, at the end of the portage of the Miami of the Lake.

No. 4.—Six miles square at Ouiatenon or old Wea town on the Wabash. This tract was subsequently retroceded to the Indians by treaty of September 30, 1809, and finally included within the Pottawattamie cession of 1818, and the Miami cession of the same year.

No. 5.—Clark's Grant on the Ohio River, stipulated in deeds from Virginia to the United States, in 1784, to be granted to General George Rogers Clark and his soldiers.

No. 6.—Post of Vincennes, and adjacent country to which the Indian title had been extinguished. A part of this tract was in Illinois.

It will be seen that much the greater part of Indiana was left under the original Indian titles. Enough, however, had been transferred to the United States to accommodate all the settlers who were then in the territory, or likely to come in for a number of years. The Clark Grant was private property, and it was early opened to settlement by General Clark, and besides it, the United States had, by the treaty of Greenville, a good deal of land on the Wabash, and at the junction of the rivers St. Mary and St. Joseph. But the whites have always been a covetous people, and notwithstanding the Government had plenty of land on which they might settle, they were not content with it, but continually encroached on the lands remaining to the Indians. It was the same after every new treaty, with its accompanying surrender of title. In 1795 a few families settled on the bottom lands on the Ohio River, where the town of Lawrenceburg now stands, and others settled in Clark County at a point designated as "Armstrong's Station." These were encroachments on the Indian lands, and with other similar encroachments furnished the pretext for the conspiracy organized a few years later by Tecumseh.

When General William Henry Harrison was appointed Governor of the Territory, he was invested with general powers to make treaties with the various Indian tribes, and to extinguish by such treaties the titles of the Indians to the lands within the territory. He was very active in this matter and negotiated several treaties, acquiring with each great tracts of land. In 1802 he got from the Miamis and Pottawattamies large tracts in the vicinity of Vincennes, on the Wabash. In the next year, by a treaty negotiated at Vincennes, he secured about one million six hundred thousand acres from the head men of the Delaware, Shawnee, Pottawattamie, Eel River, Kickapoo, Piankashaw and Kaskaskia tribes. During the same year he negotiated at Vincennes another treaty with the Kaskaskias by which the Government secured about eight million, six hundred thousand acres, lying on the borders of the Mississinnewa and Illinois Rivers. In August, 1804, by a treaty concluded at Vincennes, the Delawares and Piankashaws relinquished their claim to the tract of country lying

between the Wabash and Ohio Rivers, and south of the road which led from Vincennes to the Falls of the Ohio. In 1805 the Delawares, Pottawattamies, Miamis, Eel Rivers and Weas ceded a large tract on the Ohio River, and in December of the same year the Piankashaws ceded about two million six hundred thousand acres lying west of the Wabash River.

By these treaties the United States acquired the title to all the Indian lands along the Ohio River, from the mouth of the Wabash to the western line of the State of Ohio. In 1809 Governor Harrison obtained from several of the tribes, by a treaty concluded at Fort Wayne, about three million acres, lying principally on the southeastern side of the Wabash River, and below the mouth of Racoon creek, in what is now Parke County. Governor Harrison, by his several treaties, acquired for the Government about 29,710,530 acres of land. Tecumseh and his brother, the Prophet, rejected the treaty of Fort Wayne, and refused to be bound by it. The next treaty was in 1818, when the Delawares ceded all the lands claimed by them in the present boundaries of Indiana, but they reserved the right to occupy the land for three years after signing the treaty. Between that and the year 1840, when the Indian title to the last of the lands claimed by them in Indiana was extinguished, thirty-three separate treaties were negotiated. It will thus be seen that the process of extinguishing the Indian titles was a slow one, and that the Indians were not finally dispossessed until after Indiana had been a member of the Union for nearly a quarter of a century. In most of these final treaties certain tracts were reserved by the Indians for favorite members of the tribes, and are yet known as "reservations," although about all the lands have passed to other persons than the descendants of the original beneficiaries. A few descendants of the Miamis still live in Wabash and Miami Counties. In its various purchases from the Indians the United States frequently had to accept from two, and sometimes three, different tribes separate relinquishments of their respective rights, titles and claims to the same section of country. On the accompanying map is delineated the boundaries of the different tracts of land within the State ceded

to the United States from time to time by treaty with the various Indian tribes. The cessions are as follows:

No. 1.—A tract lying east of a line running from opposite the mouth of the Kentucky River, in a northerly direction, to Fort Recovery, in Ohio, and which forms a small portion of the western end of the cession made by the first paragraph of Article III., treaty of August 3, 1795, with the Wyandot, Delaware, Miami, and nine other tribes. The bulk of the cession was in Ohio.

No. 2.—Six miles square at the confluence of the St. Mary and St. Joseph Rivers, including Fort Wayne; also ceded by the treaty of August 3, 1795.

No. 3.—Two miles square on the Wabash, at the end of the Portage of the Miami of the Lake; also ceded by the treaty of August 3, 1795.

No. 4.—Six miles square at Ouiatenon, or old Wea town, on the Wabash; also ceded by treaty of August 3, 1795. This tract was subsequently retroceded to the Indians by Article VIII, treaty of September 30, 1809, and finally included within the Pottawattamie cession of October 2, 1818, and the Miami cession of October 6, 1818.

No. 5.—Clark's Grant on the Ohio River; stipulated in deed of Virginia to the United States in 1784. This tract was specially exempted from the limits of the Indian country by treaty of August 3, 1795.

No. 6.—Post of Vincennes and adjacent country. This tract was specially excluded from the limits of the Indian country by treaty of August 3, 1795. Doubts having arisen as to its correct boundaries, they were specifically defined by treaty of June 7, 1803. The tract was partly in Illinois.

No. 7.—Tract ceded by the treaties of August 18, 1804, with the Delawares, and August 27, 1804, with the Piankashaws.

No. 8.—Cession of treaty of August 21, 1805, with the Miamis, Eel Rivers, and Weas. Lies in the southeastern part of the State.

No. 9.—Cession by treaty of September 30, 1809, with the Miamis, Eel River, Delaware and Pottawattamie tribes, adjoining the "Vincennes tract" on the north. This

cession was concurred in by the Weas in the treaty of October 26, 1809.

No. 10.—Cession by the same treaty of September 30, 1809, in the southeastern portion of the State.

No. 11.—Cession also by the treaty of September 30, 1809; partly in Illinois. This cession was conditional upon the consent of the Kickapoos, which was obtained by the treaty with them of December 9, 1809.

No. 12.—Cession by the Kickapoos, December 9, 1809, which was subsequently reaffirmed by them June 4, 1816. It was also assented to by the Weas October 2, 1818, and by the Miamis October 6, 1818. It is partly in Illinois.

No. 13.—Cession by the Wyandots, September 29, 1817. This is mostly in Ohio.

No. 14.—Cession by the Pottawattamies, October 2, 1818; partly in Illinois. A subsequent treaty of August 30, 1819, with the Kickapoos, cedes a tract of country (No. 16), which overlaps this cession.

By the treaty of October 2, 1818, the Weas ceded all the land claimed by them in Ohio, Indiana and Illinois, except a small reserve on the Wabash River. Their claim was of a general and indefinite character, and is fully covered by more definite cessions by other tribes.

By the treaty of October 3, 1818, the Delawares ceded all their claims to land in Indiana. This claim, which they held in joint tenancy with the Miamis, was located on the waters of White River, and is included in the tract marked 15, ceded by the Miamis, October 6, 1818.

No. 15.—Cession by the Miamis, October 6, 1818. Its general boundaries cover all of Central Indiana and a small portion of Western Ohio, but within its limits were included the Wea Reservation of 1818 (No. 17), and six tracts of different dimensions were reserved for the future use of the Miamis [Nos. 21, 29 (30 and 50), (31, 48, 53 and 54), 49 and 51]. The Miamis also assented to the Kickapoo cession of December 9, 1809 (No. 12). The Kickapoos in turn, by treaty of July 30, 1819, relinquished all claim to the country southeast of the Wabash, which was an indefinite tract, and is covered by the foregoing Miami cession of 1818.

No. 16.—Cession by the Kickapoos, August 30, 1819.

This cession is largely in Illinois. It overlaps the Pottawattamie cession of October 2, 1818 (No. 14). It is in turn overlapped by the Pottawattamie cession (No. 23), of October 26, 1832.

No. 17.—Cession of the Weas, August 11, 1820, of the tract reserved by them October 2, 1818. It is on the Wabash River in the western part of the State, and is within the general limits of the Miami cession (No. 15), of October 6, 1818.

No. 18.—Cession of August 29, 1821, by the Ottawas, Chippewas, and Pottawattamies; mostly in Michigan.

No. 19.—Cession by the Pottawattamies by the first clause of the first article of the treaty of October 23, 1826. It lies north of the Wabash River. This and an indefinite extent of adjoining country was also claimed by the Miamis, who ceded their claim thereto, October 23, 1826, with the exception of several reservations, four of which (Nos. 26, 27, 32 and 52) were partly or entirely within the general limits of the Pottawattamie cession.

No. 20.—Cession by the last clause of the first article of the Pottawattamie treaty of October 16, 1826, in the northwest corner of the State.

As above stated, the Miamis, by treaty of October 23, 1826, ceded all their claim to land in Indiana, lying north and west of the Wabash and Miami (Maumee) Rivers, except six small tribal, and a number of individual, reserves or grants. These six tribal reserves are numbered 23, 27, 32, 52, 25, and 28, the first four being either partly or wholly within the Pottawattamie cession, by the first clause of the first article of the treaty of October 16, 1826, and the other two within the Pottawattamie cession, of October 27, 1832.

No. 21.—Cession by the Eel River Miamis, February 11, 1828. This tract is within the general limits of the Miami cession (No. 15) of 1818, and was reserved therefrom.

No. 22.—Cession by the second clause of the first article of the Pottawattamie treaty of September 20, 1828.

No. 23.—Cession by the Pottawattamies, October 26, 1832, in the northwest portion of the State. Near the southwest corner it overlaps the Kickapoo cession (No. 16) of August 30, 1819. Within the general limits of this ces-

sion seven tracts were reserved for different bands of the tribe, which are numbered on the map as follows: 33, 34, 39, 40 (two reserves), 41 and 42.

No. 24.—Cession by the Pottawattamies of Indiana and Michigan, October 27, 1832, which in terms is a relinquishment of their claim to any remaining lands in the States of Indiana and Illinois, and in the Territory of Michigan, south of Grand River. Within the general limits of this cession, however, they reserved for the use of the various bands of the tribe, eleven tracts of different areas, and which are numbered as follows: 35, 36, 37, 38, 43 (two reserves), 44 (two reserves), 45, 46 and 47.

Nos. 25 to 32 inclusive, ceded by treaty with the Miamis, October 23, 1834, eight small tracts previously reserved by them.

No. 25.—Tract of thirty-six sections at Flat Belly's village, reserved by treaty of 1826.

No. 26.—Tract of five miles in length on the Wabash, extending back to Eel River, reserved by treaty of 1826.

No. 27.—Tract of ten sections at Raccoon's village, reserved by the treaty of 1826.

No. 28.—Tract of ten sections on Mud Creek, reserved by treaty of 1826. The treaty of October 27, 1832, with the Pottawattamies, established a reserve of sixteen sections for the bands of Ash-kum and Wee-si-o-nas (No. 45) and one of five sections for the band of Wee-sau (No. 47), which overlapped and included nearly all the territory comprised in the Mud Creek reserve.

No. 29.—Tract of two miles square on the Salomanie River, reserved by the treaty of 1818.

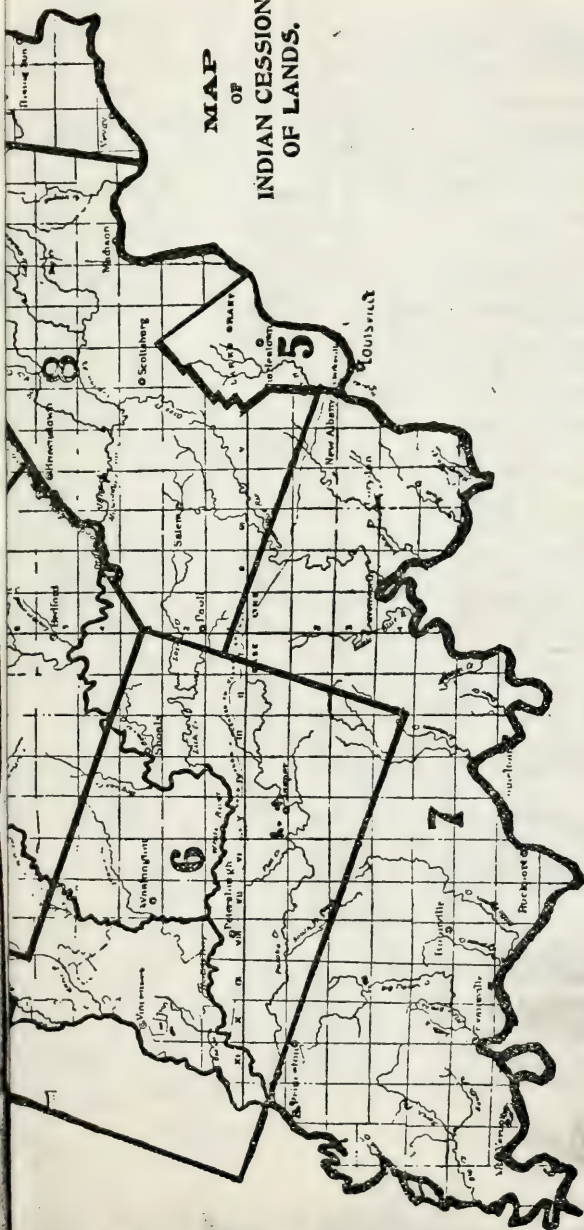
No. 30.—A portion of the tract opposite the mouth of Aboutte River, reserved by the treaty of 1818.

No. 31.—A portion of the tract known as the "Big Reserve," established by the treaty of 1818.

No. 32.—Tract of ten sections at the Forks of the Wabash, reserved by the treaty of 1826. This cession provides for the relinquishment of the Indian title and the issuance of a patent to John B. Richardville therefor.

No. 33.—Cession of December 4, 1834, by Com-o-za's band of Pottawattamies, of a tract of two sections re-

MAP OF INDIAN CESSIONS OF LANDS.



sion seven tracts were reserved for different bands of the tribe, which are numbered on the map as follows: 33, 34, 39, 40 (two reserves), 41 and 42.

No. 24.—Cession by the Pottawattamies of Indiana and Michigan, October 27, 1832, which in terms is a relinquishment of their claim to any remaining lands in the States of Indiana and Illinois, and in the Territory of Michigan, south of Grand River. Within the general limits of this cession, however, they reserved for the use of the various bands of the tribe, eleven tracts of different areas, and which are numbered as follows: 35, 36, 37, 38, 43 (two reserves), 44 (two reserves), 45, 46 and 47.

Nos. 25 to 32 inclusive, ceded by treaty with the Miamis, October 23, 1834, eight small tracts previously reserved by them.

No. 25.—Tract of thirty-six sections at Flat Belly's village, reserved by treaty of 1826.

No. 26.—Tract of five miles in length on the Wabash, extending back to Eel River, reserved by treaty of 1826.

No. 27.—Tract of ten sections at Raccoon's village, reserved by the treaty of 1826.

No. 28.—Tract of ten sections on Mud Creek, reserved by treaty of 1826. The treaty of October 27, 1832, with the Pottawattamies, established a reserve of sixteen sections for the bands of Ash-kum and Wee-si-o-nas (No. 45) and one of five sections for the band of Wee-sau (No. 47), which overlapped and included nearly all the territory comprised in the Mud Creek reserve.

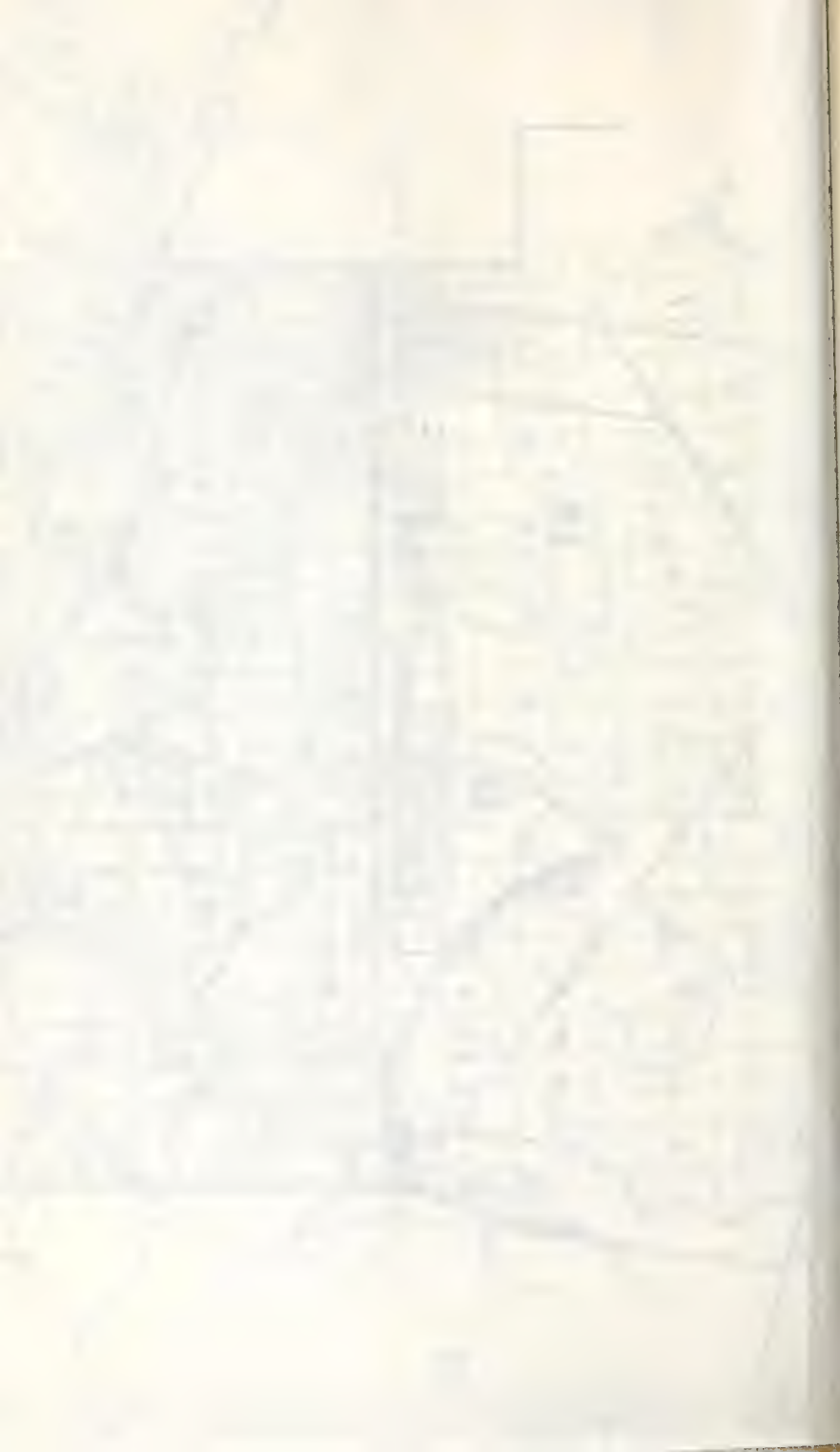
No. 29.—Tract of two miles square on the Salomanie River, reserved by the treaty of 1818.

No. 30.—A portion of the tract opposite the mouth of Aboutte River, reserved by the treaty of 1818.

No. 31.—A portion of the tract known as the "Big Reserve," established by the treaty of 1818.

No. 32.—Tract of ten sections at the Forks of the Wabash, reserved by the treaty of 1826. This cession provides for the relinquishment of the Indian title and the issuance of a patent to John B. Richardville therefor.

No. 33.—Cession of December 4, 1834, by Com-o-za's band of Pottawattamies, of a tract of two sections re-



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r 10, 1834, by Mau-ke-kose's
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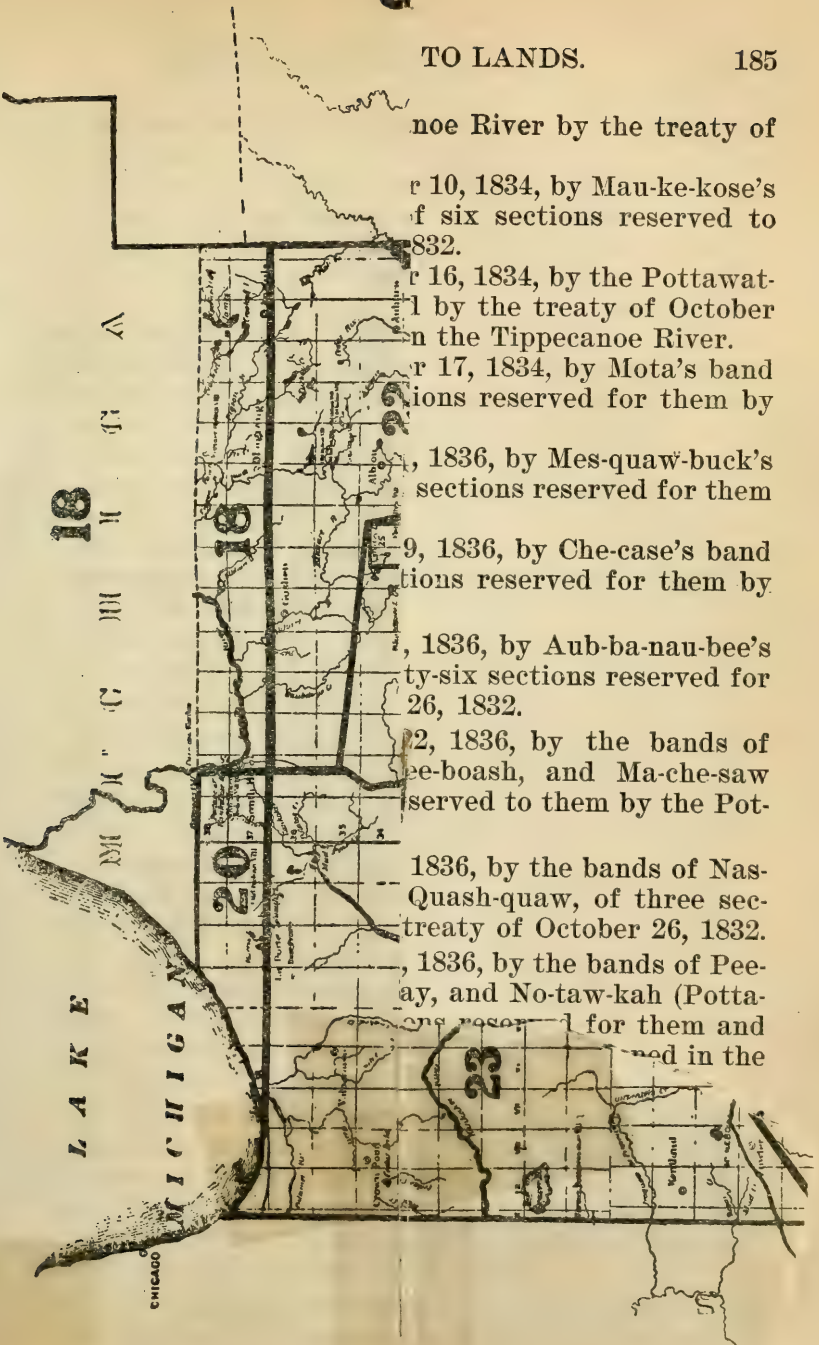
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served for them on the Tippecanoe River by the treaty of October 26, 1832.

—No. 34.—Cession of December 10, 1834, by Mau-ke-kose's band of the Pottawattamies, of six sections reserved to them by treaty of October 26, 1832.

No. 35.—Cession of December 16, 1834, by the Pottawattamies, of two sections reserved by the treaty of October 27, 1832, to include their mills on the Tippecanoe River.

No. 36.—Cession of December 17, 1834, by Mota's band of Pottawattamies, of four sections reserved for them by treaty of October 27, 1832.

No. 37.—Cession of March 26, 1836, by Mes-quaw-buck's band of Pottawattamies, of four sections reserved for them by treaty of October 27, 1832.

No. 38.—Cession of March 29, 1836, by Che-case's band of Pottawattamies, of four sections reserved for them by the treaty of October 27, 1832.

No. 39.—Cession of April 11, 1836, by Aub-ba-nau-bee's band of Pottawattamies, of thirty-six sections reserved for them by the treaty of October 26, 1832.

No. 40.—Cession of April 22, 1836, by the bands of O-kaw-mause, Kee-waw-nee, Nee-boash, and Ma-che-saw (Mat-chis-jaw), of ten sections reserved to them by the Pottawattamies, October 26, 1832.

No. 41.—Cession of April 22, 1836, by the bands of Nas-waw-kee (Nees-waugh-gee) and Quash-quaw, of three sections reserved for them by the treaty of October 26, 1832.

No. 42.—Cession of August 5, 1836, by the bands of Pee-pin-ah-waw, Mack-kah-tah-mo-may, and No-taw-kah (Pottawattamies), of twenty-two sections reserved for them and the band of Menom-i-nee (the latter is not mentioned in the cession), by treaty of October 26, 1832.

No. 43.—Cession of September 20, 1836, by the bands of To-i-sas brother, Me-mot-way, and Che-quaw-ka-ko, of ten sections reserved to them by the Pottawattamies by treaty of October 27, 1832, and cession of September 22, 1836, by Ma-sac's band of Pottawattamies, of four sections reserved for them by the treaty of October 27, 1832.

September 23, 1836, various bands of the Pottawattamies ceded the lands reserved for them by the treaty of

1832 (being all their remaining lands in Indiana), numbered from 44 to 47, inclusive, as follows:

No. 44.—Four sections each for the bands of Kin-kash and Men-o-quet.

No. 45.—Ten sections for the band of Che-chaw-kose.

No. 46.—Sixteen sections for the bands of Ash-kum and Wee-si-o-nas.

No. 47.—Five sections for the band of Wee-sau. This cession overlaps Nos. 19 and 28.

A cession for the second time is also made by this treaty of the four sections reserved for the band of Mote (No. 35) by the treaty of October 27, 1832.

November 6, 1838, the Miamis ceded as follows, Nos. 48 to 52 inclusive:

No. 48.—A portion of the "Big Reserve," within the limits of which is reserved a tract for the band of Me-to-sin-ia, numbered 54.

No. 49.—The reservation by the treaty of 1818 on the Wabash River, below the forks thereof.

No. 50.—The remainder of the tract reserved by the treaty of 1818, opposite the mouth of Aboutte River.

No. 51.—The reserve by the treaty of 1818 at the mouth of Flat Rock Creek.

No. 52.—The reserve at Seek's village by treaty of 1826.

No. 53.—Cession of November 28, 1840, of the residue the "Big Reserve," (except the grant to Me-to-sin-ia's band, No. 54).

No. 54.—By the Miami treaty of November 6, 1838, a reserve of ten miles square was made (out of the general cession) for the band of Me-to-sin-ia. By the treaty of November 28, 1840, the United States agreed to convey this tract to Me-shing-go-me-sia, son of Me-to-sin-ia, in trust for the band. By act of Congress, approved June 10, 1872, this reserve was partitioned among the members of the band, sixty-three in number, and patents issued to each of them for his or her share. This ended all the Indian tribal titles to lands in Indiana.

CHAPTER IX.

EARLY LAND GRANTS.

Indiana has been peculiarly fortunate in not having any great legal contests over titles to land, such as arose in Missouri, California and other new States, springing from large grants to individuals or companies. Soon after the French settled at Vincennes, the Piankashaw Indians gave to the Post a grant of land for the use of the inhabitants. It was never specifically described by metes and bounds, but was a sort of general permission to occupy lands adjacent to the Post, to be cultivated for the support of the inhabitants. No question ever arose between the Indians and the French over this land, but the French occupied and cultivated it at will. Many years afterward, and after the United States had assumed jurisdiction over the country, the descendants of the first French settlers set up a claim that the Indians had ceded to the settlers about fifteen thousand square miles of land, and asked Congress to set it off to them. They produced no writing or other evidence of this claim, except a clause which had been inserted in a written conveyance of land to the Wabash Land Company. In that deed of cession certain lands were described as having been sold to the Wabash Land Company, and a statement made that the intervening land had been reserved or granted to the inhabitants of the Post at Vincennes. Congress never admitted this claim, and refused to recognize the cession to the Wabash Land Company.

While the French occupied Vincennes the land that had been granted for the use of the Post was mainly cultivated in common. That is, it was called the land of the Post, but

permission was given to individuals to cultivate portions of it. It was fenced in as a whole, and when the harvest was over the fencing would be taken down, so as to throw it again into a common. St. Ange, while he commanded at the Post, gave some specific grants from this land to certain individuals, holding it, as he did, as the property of the King, which, as the King's representative, he had a right to dispose of to those who had rendered valuable services to his majesty. These grants were sometimes in writing and sometimes only verbal. This custom was followed by other French commanders who succeeded St. Ange in authority. But little effort was ever made to record or perpetuate the evidences of these grants, and they were the cause of great trouble and hardship when the British took possession. The treaty between France and England provided that all the property rights of the French inhabitants at Vincennes and the other Posts should be recognized and protected by the British Government. From 1763, the time of the cession to the British, until 1772, nothing appears to have been done by the British authorities to interfere with the peaceable possession of the lands by the French. In that year General Gage issued the following proclamation:

"Whereas, many persons, contrary to the positive orders of the king upon the subject, have undertaken to make settlements beyond the boundaries fixed by the treaties made with the Indian nations, which boundaries ought to serve as a barrier between the whites and the said nations; and a great number of persons have established themselves particularly on the river Ouabache, where they lead a wandering life, without government, and without laws, interrupting the free course of trade, destroying the game, and causing infinite disturbance in the country, which occasions considerable injury to the affairs of the king, as well as those of the Indians—his majesty has been pleased to order, and by these presents orders are given in the name of the king, to all those who have established themselves on the lands upon the Ouabache, whether at St. Vincent or elsewhere, to quit those countries instantly and without delay, and to retire, at their choice, into some one

of the colonies of his majesty, where they will be received and treated as the other subjects of his majesty."

The receipt of this proclamation caused great commotion at Vincennes. The settlers had been resting securely on the promise in the treaty that they should be protected in their property rights, and to be thus peremptorily ordered to leave their homes and seek refuge somewhere else, was startling. The principal French inhabitants of the Post at once dispatched a letter to General Gage, remonstrating against his arbitrary order. They claimed that the French settlement at Vincennes was of "seventy years' standing;" that the land had originally been ceded to the Post by the Indians, who were the owners and possessors of it; that all of it "had been granted to them by order and under the protection" of the King of France; that it was held by "sacred titles;" that their titles had been guaranteed by the treaty of 1763. To this letter of protest General Gage replied as follows:

"New York, April 2, 1773.

"Gentlemen:—I have received your letter of the 14th of September last, with the representations annexed, which I intend to cause, in a few days, to be transported to the feet of his majesty.

"As you claim your possession by sacred titles, insinuating that your settlement is of seventy years' standing, and that the lands have been granted by order and under the protection of his most Christian majesty, it is necessary that his majesty should be informed very particularly upon these points; and it is important to you to give convincing proofs of all that you allege in this respect.

"To this end I have to demand, without delay, the name of every inhabitant at Vincennes and its neighborhood, and by what title each one claims; if it is by concession, the year of the concession must be added, as well as the name of the officer who made it, and the name of the governor-general who approved and confirmed it with [words unintelligible] also of the records where each concession shall have been registered. That the report which I expect may be better understood, I annex hereto a form, which I beg you to follow exactly, and to put me as early as possible in a situation to push forward your business.

"I am Gentlemen, your most humble and obedient servant,
THOMAS GAGE."

This did not help matters very much for the poor French settlers at Vincennes. Many of their concessions had been verbally made, but they had occupied the land for many years, never dreaming that their right would be questioned. Those which had been made in writing, or at least many of them, had been without record. The French settlers were a careless, happy people, and only a few of them could read or write, and they had no knowledge of the value or importance of record evidence of title, or even of written evidence. Their deeds had been carelessly lost or destroyed. There was nothing to do but appeal to their former commandants. St. Ange responded in a long communication to General Gage, in which he certified to the fact that he had commanded the Post from 1736 to 1764, "and that during said time I have conceded to many inhabitants divers lands and pieces of ground, by order of my said Srs. the Governors, in the name of His Most Christian Majesty." He claimed that full faith and credit should be given to all such concessions, and that in addition to them he had verbally permitted a number of individuals to establish themselves on and cultivate certain lands, of which they had held possession for many years. It appears that one Baumer, who had been a Notary at Vincennes, had fled the colony, and as most of the inhabitants were in the custom of leaving with the Notary all their important and valuable writings, he had been in possession of many of the written concessions, and had carried them away with him. It was also claimed that at the time of the removal of the record office from Vincennes to the Illinois country a number of concession papers and contracts of sale had been lost.

Before any further steps were taken in the matter the British Government disapproved the order of General Gage. The war with the colonies speedily followed, and upon the capture of Vincennes by General George Rogers Clark, he guaranteed the settlers in their rights. In 1773 what became known as the "Illinois Land Company" was organized, and obtained from a few chiefs a grant of nearly all of the present State of Illinois. Two years later the

"Wabash Land Company" was formed and purchased a concession from some of the Indians of lands on both sides of the Wabash. They got a tract of about ninety leagues long by seventy wide. Many efforts were afterward made to get Congress to recognize and confirm these grants but all failed. When General Clark captured Kaskaskia and Vincennes, Virginia claimed all the country, and in 1778 the General Assembly of that State organized the country northwest of the Ohio River into the County of Illinois, and the next year appointed Colonel John Todd as County Lieutenant. Soon after assuming his office the County Lieutenant issued the following proclamation:

"Whereas, from the fertility and beautiful situation of the lands bordering upon the Mississippi, Ohio, Illinois and Wabash Rivers, the taking up of the usual quantity of land heretofore allowed for a settlement by the government of Virginia, would injure both the strength and commerce of this country: I do, therefore, issue this proclamation, strictly enjoining all persons whatsoever, from making any new settlements upon the flat lands of the said rivers, or within one league of said lands, unless in manner and form of settlements as heretofore made by the French inhabitants, until further orders herein given. And, in order that all the claims to lands in said county may be fully known, and some method provided for perpetuating by record, the just claims, every inhabitant is required, as soon as conveniently may be, to lay before the person, in each district, appointed for that purpose, a memorandum of his or her land, with copies of all their vouchers; and where vouchers have never been given, or are lost, such depositions or certificates as will tend to support their claims:—the memorandum to mention the quantity of land, to who originally granted, and when—deducing the title through the various occupants to the present possessor. The number of adventurers who will shortly overrun this country, renders the above method necessary, as well to ascertain the vacant lands, as to guard against trespasses which will probably be committed on lands not on record."

Colonel J. M. P. Legras was appointed commandant at Vincennes. To further organize the country, and to make

some pretense of authority, the County Lieutenant established a court at Vincennes, with Colonel Legras as President. This court soon organized itself into a sort of land gift association, and proceeded to make grants of lands indiscriminately to the French and American inhabitants of Vincennes, and to sundry civil and military officers. They paid little regard to any claims the Indians might have, but made their grants wherever the individuals favored asked for them. These grants ranged in size from town lots to tracts of four hundred acres, and were given to whoever asked for them. Having thus disposed, in a few years, of nearly fifty thousand acres, the court concluded to go into the gift business by the wholesale, and divided among the members of the court the whole of the territory that had been claimed as a concession by the Indians to the French. Their method was for one member to absent himself from the court at one session, and while he was thus absent his fellow members would enter of record a grant to him. The next day he would appear and unite in making a similar grant to an absentee.

In 1787 Lieutenant Colonel Harmar, in command of the United States troops, arrived at Vincennes and put a stop to this granting of land by the court. By the ordinance of 1787 the United States had pledged itself to guarantee actual settlers about Vincennes in their titles to the lands they owned. To determine the lawful grants, instructions were issued to Governor St. Clair. He visited Vincennes, but before he could take any measures returned to Marietta, leaving Winthrop Sargent, Secretary of the Territory, to carry out the orders of Congress. He notified the inhabitants to appear and present their claims to lands. In his report to President Washington, under date of July 31, 1790, Mr. Sargent said:

"Although the lands and lots which were awarded to the inhabitants, appeared, from very good oral testimony, to belong to those persons to whom they were awarded, either by original grants, purchase, or inheritance, yet there was scarcely one case in twenty where the title was complete, owing to the desultory manner in which public business had been transacted, and some other unfortunate causes. The original concessions by the French and Brit-

ish commandants were generally made upon small scraps of paper, which it had been customary to lodge in the notary's office, who has seldom kept any book of record, but committed the most important land concerns to loose sheets, which, in process of time, have come into possession of persons that have fraudulently destroyed them, or unacquainted with their consequence, innocently lost or trifled them away; for, by the French usage, they are considered as family inheritances, and often descend to women and children. In one instance, and during the government of Mr. St. Ange here, a royal notary ran off with all the public papers in his possession, as by a certificate produced to me. And I am very sorry further to observe that in the office of Mr. LeGrand, which continued from the year 1777 to 1787, and where should have been the vouchers for important land transactions, the records have been so falsified, and there is such gross fraud and forgery as to invalidate all evidence and information which I might otherwise have acquired from his papers."

Mr. Sargent called upon the members of Mr. Todd's court to explain where they obtained authority to make land grants. To this the court replied as follows:

"Sir:—As you have given verbal orders to the magistrates who formerly composed the court of the district of Post Vincennes, under the jurisdiction of the State of Virginia, to give you their reasons for having taken upon them to grant concessions for the lands in the district, in obedience thereto, we beg leave to inform you that their principal reason is, that since the establishment of this country, the commandants have always appeared to be vested with the power to give lands. Their founder, Mr. Vincennes, began to give concessions, and all his successors have given lands and lots. Mr. Legras was appointed commandant of Post Vincennes by the lieutenant of the county, John Todd, who was in the year 1779, sent by the State of Virginia to regulate the government of the country, and who substituted Mr. Legras to his power. In his absence Mr. Legras, who was then commandant, assumed that he had, in quality of commandant, authority to give lands according to the ancient usages of other commandants; and he verbally informed the court of Post Vin-

cennes, that when they would judge it proper to give lands or lots to those who should come into the country to settle, or otherwise, they might do it; and that he gave them permission to do so. These are the reasons that we acted upon; and if we have done more than we ought, it was on account of the little knowledge which we had of public affairs."

These reasons did not prove satisfactory to Congress. The judges might plead an ignorance of public affairs, but they were certainly experts in the matter of taking care of themselves.

As early as 1783 Congress began discussing the best method of dividing the public lands by metes and bounds in order that they might more readily be conveyed to purchasers. Several propositions were submitted. On May 18, 1784, an ordinance was proposed to divide the lands into townships of ten miles square, each township to be divided into one hundred parts. In April, 1785, another ordinance was introduced making the townships seven miles square, and this was finally changed to six miles square, and adopted on the 20th of May, 1785. This ordinance is worthy of more than a passing notice, as it contains a section which forms the basis of the common school fund, not only of Indiana, but of the other States carved out of the territory northwest of the Ohio River. The land was to be divided by lines denominated Township and Range lines. After providing for the appointment of surveyors, and a Geographer, the ordinance says:

"The first line running north and south as aforesaid, shall begin on the river Ohio, at a point that shall be found to be due north from the western termination of a line which has been run as the southern boundary of the State of Pennsylvania; and the first line running east and west shall begin at the same point; and shall extend throughout the whole territory; provided, that nothing herein shall be construed as fixing the western boundary of the State of Pennsylvania. The geographer shall designate the townships or fractional townships, by numbers, progressively, from south to north—always beginning each range with No. 1; and the ranges shall be distinguished by their progressive numbers to the westward.

The first range, extending from the Ohio to the Lake Erie, being marked No. 1. The geographer shall personally attend to the running of the first east and west line; and shall take the latitude of the extremes of the first north and south line, and of the mouths of the principal rivers.

"The lines shall be measured with a chain; shall be plainly marked by chops on the trees, and exactly described on a plat; whereon shall be noted by the surveyor, at their proper distances, all mines, salt springs, salt licks, and mill seats that shall come to his knowledge; and all water courses, mountains, and other remarkable and permanent things, over or near which such lines shall pass, and also the quality of the lands.

"The plats of the townships, respectively, shall be marked by subdivisions, into lots of one mile square, or six hundred and forty acres, in the same direction as the external lines, and numbered from one to thirty-six—always beginning the succeeding range of the lot with the number next to that with which the preceding one concluded. And where, from the causes before mentioned, only a fractional part of a township shall be surveyed, the lots protracted thereon shall bear the same number as if the township had been entire. And the surveyors, in running the external lines of the townships, shall, at the interval of every mile, mark corners for the lots which are adjacent, always designating the same in a different manner from those of the township.

"The geographer and surveyor shall pay the utmost attention to the variation of the magnetic needle, and shall run and note all lines by the true meridian, certifying with every plat what was the variation at the times of running the lines thereon noted.

"As soon as seven ranges of townships, and fractional parts of townships, in the direction of from south to north shall have been surveyed, the geographer shall transmit plats thereof to the Board of Treasury, who shall record the same, with a report, in a well bound book to be kept for that purpose. And the geographer shall make similar returns, from time to time, of every seven ranges, as they may be surveyed. The secretary of war shall have recourse thereto, and shall take by lot therefrom a number

of townships and fractional parts of townships as well from those to be sold entire, as from those to be sold in lots, as will be equal to one-seventh part of the whole of such seven ranges, as nearly as may be, for the use of the late continental army; and he shall make a similar draught, from time to time, until a sufficient quantity is drawn to satisfy the same, to be applied in a manner hereinafter directed. The board of treasury shall, from time to time, cause the remaining numbers, as well those to be sold entire as those to be sold in lots, to be drawn for, in the name of the thirteen States, respectively, according to the quotas in the last preceding requisition on all the States; provided, that in case more lands than its proportion is allotted for sale in any State at any distribution, a deduction be made therefor at the next.

* * * * *

“There shall be reserved for the United States out of every township, the four lots being numbered 8, 11, 26, 29, and out of every fractional part of a township, so many lots of the same numbers as shall be found thereon, for sale. There shall be reserved the lot No. 16, of every township, for the maintenance of public schools within the said township; also, one-third part of all gold, silver, lead and copper mines, to be sold, or otherwise disposed of, as Congress shall hereafter direct.”

After the government took possession of the territory northwest of the Ohio River by the ordinance of 1787, some of the land was put on the market, and a good deal was sold in Ohio, but it was not until after the year 1800 that buyers began to appear for land within the boundary of Indiana. In 1804 Congress established a board of commissioners to inquire into the validity of the titles or claims to the lands in Indiana Territory. Some of the settlers insisted they held their lands by virtue of grants or concessions from the Government of France; some from Indian grants, and others from grants made by the court at Vincennes established in 1779 by Colonel Todd, and still others because of occupancy and undisturbed possession.

In 1788 Congress passed a resolution confirming in their possessions and titles the French, Canadian, and other inhabitants, who were heads of families, and set-

tlers about Vincennes and in the Illinois country, on or before the year 1783, and who had professed themselves citizens of the United States or any of them. This had been followed by an act of Congress in 1791 confirming the title of each claimant of lands, not exceeding four hundred acres at Vincennes, or in the Illinois country, in all cases where such lands were held, improved or cultivated under a supposed grant made by any commandant or court claiming authority to make grants of lands. By this act the Governor of the Territory was authorized to grant a quantity of land, not exceeding one hundred acres, to each person who had not obtained any grant of land from the United States, and who, on the 1st of August, 1790, was enrolled in the militia at Vincennes, or in the Illinois country, and had performed militia duty.

Governor St. Clair, under the authority conveyed by this act, made grants, and confirmed the titles of the settlers around Vincennes. When the Territory was divided, in 1800, this authority was exercised by Governor Harrison, until the act of 1804 was passed, when it was transferred to the registers and receivers of the land offices established by that act. For several years the land offices had much trouble with fraudulent claimants, but those who had legal claims had their titles confirmed. The town of Vincennes had always claimed a large tract of land as having been given by the Indians for the use of the inhabitants in common, and in 1818 the trustees of the town were authorized to divide this tract into lots and sell the same, the proceeds to be expended in draining a pond in the vicinity of the town, and the residue to be given to the Vincennes University.

At different times the Government made large grants of land to the State of Indiana for various purposes. The following table shows the extent of these grants and the purposes for which made:

	Acres.
For common schools (sixteenth section)	631,863.71
For university, college, or seminary, by act of April 19, 1816	46,080.00
For Michigan road, by act of March 2, 1827...	170,582.20

For Wabash and Erie Canal, by acts of March 2, 1827, Feb. 27, 1841, and March 3, 1845.	1,439,279.41
For permanent seat of Government, by act of March 3, 1819	2,560.00
Swamp lands, by act of September 28, 1850....	1,209,422.09
Saline land, by act of April 19, 1816.....	24,235.58
Total	<hr/> 3,524,022.99

CHAPTER X.

INTRODUCTION OF CHURCHES.

For the most part the early settlers of Indiana were men and women of high moral rectitude. Many of them had been church members in their old homes, while others had been trained to fear and reverence God. Except by the few families at Vincennes, there was little attempt to settle the Territory until the beginning of the nineteenth century. So it was not until after that year churches were introduced, with the single exception of the French Catholic Church at Vincennes. With almost the first traders and trappers who passed through what is now the State of Indiana, came the French missionaries from Canada. There are no certain data as to when they made their first appearance, but before the trading post had been established at Vincennes there is evidence that they had been laboring among the Indians of the Miami Confederacy. They frequently visited the French settlement at Vincennes and the trading posts at Ouiatenon and on the St. Joseph. They were earnest, courageous, and self-sacrificing. They felt that their great mission on earth was to carry the story of the Cross to the savage tribes, and no dangers, no hardships, were great enough to discourage them. They went fearlessly among the Indians, and dwelt for many years with them without seeing a civilized face. As early as 1749 a Catholic Church was established at Vincennes, by Rev. S. L. Meurin. The records of the church begin on the 21st day of April of that year. For more than half a century this was the only church in Indiana. The first Protestant sermon was preached in

Vincennes in 1810. The preacher was the Rev. William Winans, a young minister of the Methodist denomination. Vincennes was in his "circuit," and when he appeared at that place he found neither church, church members nor congregation. He secured a room and made an appointment to preach at night. Night came, and with it the young minister, General William Henry Harrison, then Governor of the Territory, and a young army lieutenant.

These two composed the congregation. It is said that the room contained no table or stand upon which to place the solitary candle, and General Harrison held it in his hand while the preacher read his hymn and lessons. It was a small congregation, but young Winans preached as if he had a crowded audience. He afterward rose to high distinction in his church. Of the early English speaking settlers, some were Methodists, some Baptists, some Presbyterians, and some Quakers, the Methodists predominating. Except at Vincennes, there was no church building in the State, and for several years whatever service was held was either in the cabins of the settlers or in the groves during the summer and fall. Preaching was very rare, as only at great intervals did a preacher pass through the settlements. When one did reach those frontier posts he was sure of a cordial welcome and an attentive hearing. Some of the cabins were quite large and would readily accommodate a congregation of fifty or even of one hundred worshipers. When a preacher arrived, it mattered little what denomination he belonged to, word was sent around the "neighborhood," announcing a time and place for preaching, and all who could, would attend promptly. In those early days the sermons were from an hour to an hour and a half long, and sometimes they even stretched out to two hours, and the fervor of the preacher was equal to the length of his discourse. None of the congregation ever complained about a sermon being too long. They were hungry for the word, and listened to it gladly. Then the Bible was the only text book for the preacher. He did not deal with "strikes," "labor troubles," "trusts," or politics. He was content to preach the riches of the Gospel and reach the hearts of his hearers with its truths.

What Protestant denomination was the first to estab-

lish regular preaching in the State has been a matter of active controversy and seems impossible to determine absolutely. The weight of authority, however, is in favor of the Methodists. According to their authorities, the Rev. Benjamin Lakin, traveling Salt River "Circuit," in Kentucky, crossed the river into what is now Clark County, and occasionally preached to the people. His efforts were so successful that in 1802 a log church was erected about two miles from the site of the present town of Charlestown. That church is still standing, although not now used for worship. It is said that the first regular preacher in charge was the Rev. Moses Ashworth. If so, he must have been sent from Kentucky. The first circuit formed in Indiana was in 1807, and was called "Whitewater Circuit," and attached to the Ohio district. The Rev. Joseph Williams was the preacher in charge. The circuit embraced all of Indiana, and in 1808 Mr. Williams reported that there were but one hundred and sixty members of the Methodist church within his circuit.

Prior to that time the Rev. Hugh Cull, a "local preacher" of the Methodists, had moved into the Territory, settling in what is now Wayne County. He gathered around him his neighbors and preached to them until "regular" preaching could be established. He formed a "class" in his neighborhood, and it has been claimed this was the first organization of Methodists in the State, but the claim of the church near Charlestown to priority must be allowed.

Both the Baptists and the Presbyterians claim to have organized the first church in the Territory, and two places contest for this honor. It is claimed by the Presbyterians that the "Upper Indiana Church" was organized in 1801, in a barn, one and a half miles north of Vincennes, by the Rev. Samuel B. Robinson, a missionary from Kentucky. It did not have a church building until 1815, and no records of the organization of an earlier date than 1812 are presented, although there is a tradition that John Scott Harrison, brother of General William Henry Harrison, was the first to be received into membership by baptism. The church organization still remains, but the old edifice long ago gave place to a new and more commodious one.

In the cemetery adjoining the church lie buried sixty or more soldiers who fought in the Revolutionary War.

The Baptist claim antedates that of the Presbyterians by two years. The Charlestown Baptist Church was, it is said, organized in November, 1798, and the first meeting after the organization was held in the February following. The organization consisted of four persons, but in July, 1799, three more were added. A church building was erected on Silver Creek, in 1804.

These are the claims as to the establishment of the first Protestant church. As to which sect was first in the field it matters little. That all three began their labors soon after the first settlers established themselves in the Territory is certain, and it is also certain that they labored faithfully and well. The Rev. Hugh Cull, already mentioned, lived in Wayne County until his death, which occurred at the age of one hundred and five. He was a member of the convention of 1816, which framed the first constitution of the State. In 1808 the Methodists erected their second church in the Territory, in "Meek's Grove," in what is now Wayne County. All those early church buildings were of the rudest sort. The people were very poor, and the settlements were far apart. The people lived in rude log cabins and the meeting houses were built of logs. The floors were of puncheons, and the only light came from spaces made by cutting out parts of one or more logs. The rude log house in Wayne County, and the two near Charlestown, were the pioneers of the Protestant churches in Indiana, and were used as places of worship for several years.

The first preachers had a hard time of it. There were no roads, except "blazed" bridle paths, through much of the country. The streams were unbridged, and those early dispensers of the gospel traveled the country with their guns on their shoulders, to defend themselves from both beasts and men. The people had no money to pay salaries with, and the work was one of love. The Baptists and Disciples soon followed the Methodists, and later came the Presbyterians, Quakers and Episcopalians. The first campmeeting held in the bounds of the State, of which any authentic trace can be found, took place in

Wayne County, in the fall of 1810. For many years thereafter campmeetings were favorite seasons, especially with the Methodists, although they were by no means confined to that denomination. They would generally last a week, and would be attended by hundreds, some of them traveling great distances, as distances were counted in those days. It was no uncommon thing then for people to ride ten, fifteen and even twenty miles, on horseback, to attend regular preaching. There can be no doubt that much of the early growth and prosperity of Indiana was due to the character of those early missionaries of the Cross who traversed its wilderness, preaching and teaching. The various denominations were early in the field battling for the cause of education, and all have for many years supported educational institutions of high character. They have been first in every laudable enterprise. Today Indiana has as great church-seating capacity, in proportion to its population, as any State in the Union.

CHAPTER XI.

THE INTERNAL IMPROVEMENT SYSTEM.

As early as 1825, under the administration of Governor James B. Ray, the people of Indiana began agitating the construction of an extensive series of internal improvements, which were to include turnpikes, canals and railroads. The great Erie Canal had just been completed, and railroads, a few years later, began attracting attention in the Eastern States. Indiana was a growing State, but its facilities for getting to market its surplus products were very limited. The only market it could then reach was the South, and to get there the people had to depend upon flatboats and a few steamboats which were beginning to make their appearance on the Ohio River. Flatboats were built in the various streams which emptied into the White, Wabash and Ohio Rivers, loaded with the surplus products of the farms and waited for freshets to carry them to the Ohio River, and thence south. These freshets occurred in the spring and fall seasons, but the navigation of the interior streams was at all times dangerous and doubtful. Counties bordering on the Ohio River were the fortunate ones, because at almost any time a flatboat, loaded with farm products, could be shoved out into the stream and floated to New Orleans, but the interior settlements were practically cut off from a market except in the spring and fall. They must have a market or practically starve. Governor Ray saw this peculiar state of affairs and the necessity for such improvements, and in his message to the Legislature in 1825, said:

"On the construction of roads and canals, we must rely as the safest and most certain State policy, to relieve our situation, place us among the first States in the Union and change the cry of hard times into an open acknowledgment of contentedness."

Four years later, in discussing the same subject, he used the following language: "This subject, though more than once pressed upon the attention of the Legislature, can never grow irksome. Since it must be the source of the blessings of civilized life, to secure its benefits is a duty enjoined upon the Legislature by the obligations of a social compact." It was not until 1836, however, that the State finally entered upon the work of constructing roads, canals and railroads, and in the end it proved a very unfortunate speculation. Before the State projected this general system, it had entered, at the instigation of the General Government, upon the construction of the Wabash and Erie Canal. In the year 1827, the Federal Government gave Indiana a large grant of land to aid in the construction of a canal to connect Lake Erie with the Wabash River. To build such a canal would necessitate an entry into the borders of the State of Ohio and a portion of the grant made by the General Government was surrendered to Ohio on condition that she would construct the canal from the eastern boundary line of Indiana to the lake. This canal was to extend from the eastern State line to some point on the lower Wabash, where that stream might be navigable, or to Evansville, where the Ohio River might be reached. The State at once began work upon the canal. It was commenced under the administration of Governor Noble. In 1832 thirty-two miles of this canal was placed under contract. Governor Noble addressed a communication to the Governor of Ohio, requesting him to call the attention of the Legislature of that State to the subject of the extension of the canal from the Indiana line through the territory of Ohio to the Lake. The Ohio Governor laid the matter before the Legislature of his State, and resolutions were adopted by that body to the effect that if Ohio should ultimately decline to undertake the completion of the work in her borders, the land would be returned to Indiana for the pur-

pose of sale, and that the work might be done under the supervision of the latter State.

In 1834 Governor Noble, in urging the work of improvements in one of his messages to the Legislature, said: "With a view of engaging in the work of internal improvements the propriety of adopting a general plan or system, having reference to the several portions of the State, and the connection of one to the other, naturally suggests itself. No work should be commenced but such as would be of acknowledged public utility, and when complete would form a branch of some general system." During the years 1834 and 1835 work on the Wabash and Erie Canal was pushed forward with great energy. The middle division, extending from the St. Joseph River to the forks of the Wabash, was completed in 1835 at a cost of \$230,000. This line was opened for navigation on the 4th of July, 1843, with great display. In 1836 the Legislature passed a law providing for a general system of improvements, to be carried on under a board of internal improvements, and surveys by competent engineers were begun on the various works provided for.

The passage of this act caused great rejoicing throughout the State, and everywhere meetings were held to give expression to the general feeling of joy. At Indianapolis the citizens illuminated their houses, while bonfires blazed in all the streets. The people went wild; they saw an era of prosperity opening before them that would drive poverty from the land and make all men rich. It was expected and believed that the revenues the State would enjoy from the various works would not only make taxation unnecessary, but fill the State coffers to overflowing. A period of wild speculation ensued. Those who owned farms bought others, and those who owned none went into debt and purchased them. Trading of all kinds became active. The illusion only lasted a few months, and then the reverse side of the picture came, with bankruptcy, distress and ruin. The works provided for in the act of 1836 consisted of the following:

- 1.—The Whitewater Canal, to commence on the west branch of the Whitewater River, at the crossing of the National road; thence passing down the valley of the same

to the Ohio River at Lawrenceburg, and extending up the west branch of the Whitewater above the National road as far as might be practicable; also a connection between the said Whitewater canal, and the Central canal, by a canal, if practicable; if not, by a railroad, to commence at some point near the National road, thence to be continued to some suitable point on said Central canal in Madison or Delaware Counties, as the same might be found most practicable and the best calculated to promote the interests of the State. For this work the sum of \$1,400,000 was appropriated. It was provided that if the State of Ohio declined to consent to the construction of that part of the canal which would lie in her territory, then the commissioners were to construct a railroad from some point near Harrison to Lawrenceburg, wholly within the territorial limits of Indiana, and were to pay for said road out of the money appropriated for the canal.

2.—The Central canal, to commence at the most suitable point on the Wabash and Erie canal, between Fort Wayne and Logansport, running thence to Muncietown; thence to Indianapolis; thence down the valley of the west fork of White River, to its junction with the east fork of said river, and thence by the most practicable route to Evansville, on the Ohio River. It was provided, however, that the Board of Internal Improvements might, if it was found most practicable and conducive to the interests of the State, select the lower, or Pipe Creek route, for the line north from Indianapolis. In that case a "feeder" was to be made to Muncietown, and to connect with the said Central canal at some convenient point on the same. The feeder was to be of equal size and capacity as the main canal, and made equally convenient for the purposes of navigation, and be constructed simultaneously with the main canal, and in all respects be provided for in like manner with the same. For this work the sum of \$3,500,000 was appropriated.

3.—An extension of the Wabash and Erie canal from the mouth of Tippecanoe River, down the valley of the Wabash to Terre Haute, and thence by the route surveyed on Eel River, so as to connect with the Central canal at the point designated in the said survey, or else by the most

practicable route from Terre Haute so as to connect with the Central canal at or near the mouth of Black Creek, in Knox County, or at some intermediate point between said points, as should in a future survey and examination of said route, be found most conducive to the public good. For this work \$1,300,000 was appropriated.

4.—A railroad from Madison, through Columbus, Indianapolis and Crawfordsville to Lafayette. Appropriation, \$1,300,000.

5.—A macadamized turnpike road from New Albany, through Greenville, thence as near to Fredericksburgh as should be found practicable, having in view the expense of construction and the public accommodation, through Paoli, Mt. Pleasant and Washington to Vincennes. Appropriation, \$1,150,000.

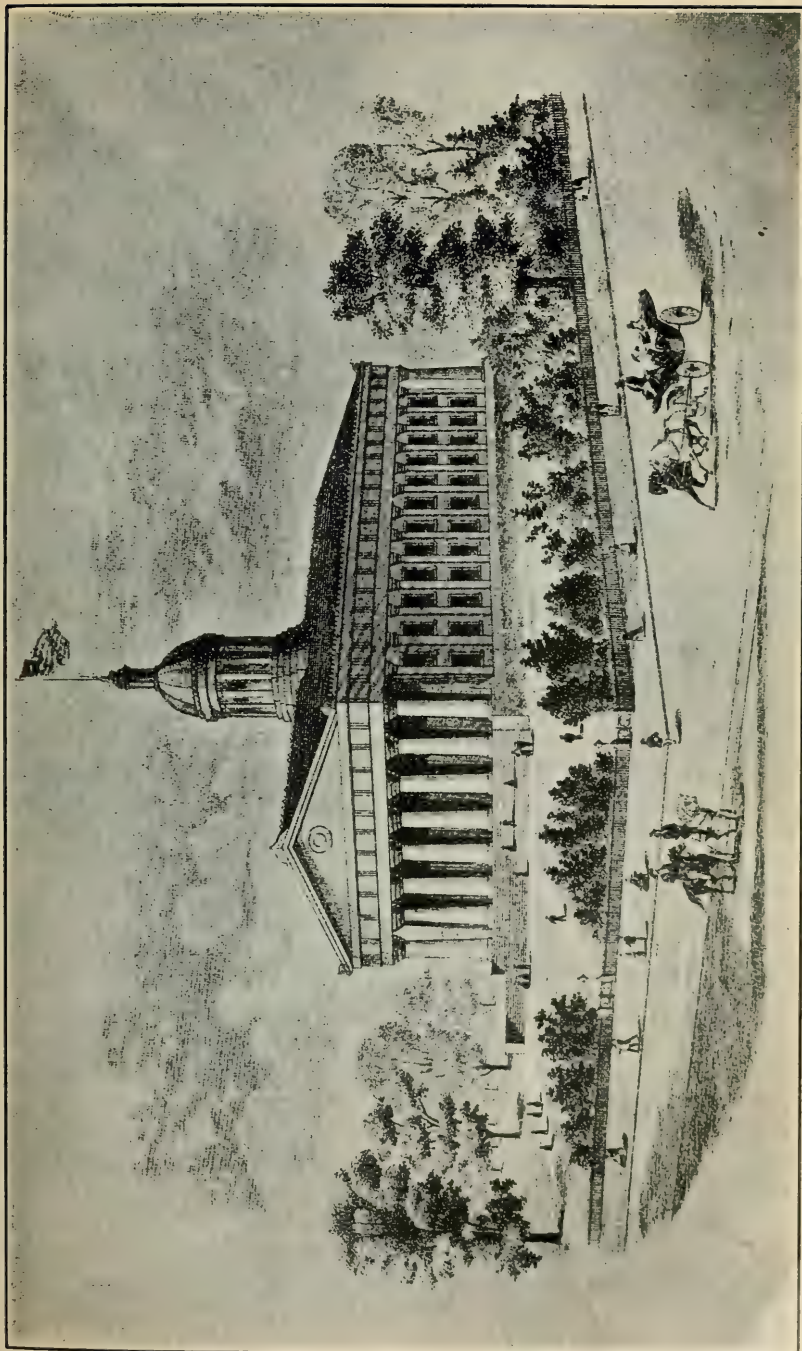
6.—To cause a re-survey of the route from Jeffersonville via New Albany and Salem, Bedford, Bloomington and Greencastle to Crawfordsville, and if found practicable to construct a railroad on said route. If not found practicable for a railroad, then a turnpike was to be built, beginning at Salem. Appropriation, \$1,300,000.

7.—To improve the Wabash River from Vincennes to its mouth. Appropriation, \$50,000.

8.—To survey and estimate the cost for a canal, if practicable, and if not, for a railroad, from the Wabash and Erie canal, at or near Fort Wayne, by way of Goshen and South Bend, and Laporte, if practicable, to Lake Michigan, at or near Michigan City, to be called the Erie and Michigan canal, or railroad. The faith of the State was irrevocably pledged to construct this canal or railroad within ten years.

It will be seen that the system entered upon was very elaborate, as all parts of the State, and many of the towns, had to be accommodated.

The aggregate length of these roads and canals was to be more than 1200 miles, and the total estimated cost was nearly \$20,000,000. To enter upon these improvements the State issued and sold bonds to the amount of \$10,000,000. It soon appeared that the State had engaged in a series of enterprises which it could never carry out, and had burdened the people with a debt amounting to more



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than \$18,000,000. The Wabash and Erie canal was completed as far as Lafayette and was in constant use, furnishing transportation for all the surplus product of that section of the State through which it ran, but the receipts from tolls were not enough to maintain it, and to pay the interest on the cost. The country was too new for such an extensive work. A part of the work was done upon all the canals and roads projected. The Whitewater canal was opened for navigation from Lawrenceburg to Connersville. The Madison and Indianapolis Railroad was finally completed and the State sold its stock for a great deal less than it had expended on the work, which amounted to \$1,492,000.

The financial distress which swept over the country in 1837 finally compelled the abandonment of all these works. Contracts had been let for most of them, and much work had been done. Their abandonment caused widespread disaster, bankrupting most of the contractors and leaving hundreds and thousands of laborers without pay for the work they had done. The State was unable to pay the interest on the debt it had incurred. Finally the State was forced to compromise with its creditors by surrendering to the bondholders some of the works that had been begun, together with large tracts of land, for one-half the amount of the indebtedness, and issuing new bonds for the remainder. The debt created by this attempt on the part of the State to construct railroads and canals proved a long plague on the people. All the bonds and certificates of stock that were required to be released to the State were not surrendered; the creditors, to whom had been transferred the unfinished works, never completed the same, and finally abandoned what had been completed. The bonds were a mortgage upon these works, and several attempts were made to induce the Legislature to pay the full amount of the bonds which had not been taken up by the creditors, as provided for in the Compromise Act. To prevent the Legislature at any future time from paying any part of the debt that was to have been assumed by the creditors, the people, in 1873, adopted an amendment to the constitution, which reads:

"No law or resolution shall ever be passed by the Gen-

eral Assembly of the State of Indiana that shall recognize any liability of this State to pay or redeem any certificate of stock issued in pursuance of an act entitled 'An act to provide for the funded debt of the State of Indiana and for the completion of the Wabash and Erie Canal to Evansville,' passed January 10, 1846; and an act supplemental to said act passed January 29, 1847, which, by the provisions of said acts, or either of them, shall be payable exclusively from the proceeds of the canal lands and the tolls and revenues of the canal in said acts mentioned; and no such certificate of stock shall ever be paid by the State."

This ended the movement for the assumption by the State of any part of this debt, which had already been paid and discharged by a surrender of its franchises.

CHAPTER XII.

FRAUDS ON THE STATE.

In comparison with some of its sister States, Indiana has suffered but very little from the frauds or peculations of its officers. In the selection of its State officers it has been peculiarly fortunate in that respect. The Treasurer of State handles several millions of money during his term, and as but few checks or guards are thrown around him by the laws, the State might have suffered great loss, but up to the present time no State Treasurer has ever defaulted a penny, and there have been only one or two small losses in the office; and those have been made good by the Treasurer. This is a remarkable showing when everything is considered. The salary connected with the office has always been wholly inadequate to the work demanded, and the responsibility taken by that officer. The first frauds perpetrated on the State were in connection with the Swamp Lands. Congress, by law, gave to the State all the swamp or wet lands contained within its boundaries. At that time there were several hundred thousand acres of such lands in the State, and if properly handled they would have been a source of wealth to the educational fund. The gift, however, awakened the cupidity of several officers and private citizens, and the State realized very little from the generosity of the Government.

The State at first undertook to put the land upon the market at a fixed price per acre, and afterwards adopted a system of drainage, the cost of reclaiming the land to be paid for in certificates permitting the holder to take it up at a stipulated price. It was not long until rumors of

great frauds were in circulation, and at last the Legislature was forced by public sentiment to order an investigation. The investigation was made, and a report of the committee disclosed that the frauds were open and notorious, and implicated, either directly or indirectly, some of the leading politicians and State and County officers, but no action was ever taken, and, as said, the great gift of the Nation was practically lost to the State.

The report was made to the General Assembly of 1859. The peculations reported on ramified from the open transfer illegally, and without compensation, of thousands of acres, to the illegal taking of fees by State and County officers. The law providing for the sale of the land fixed certain fees for various State officers, for the issuing of the patents. To increase those fees the State Auditor ordered that no patent should be for a greater amount than forty acres, no matter how many acres might have been in the tract sold. The land was generally sold in whole sections, and one patent ought to have covered the whole transaction, but by the order of the State Auditor sixteen patents were required, and the committee reported that by this means more than \$14,000 had been taken illegally from the treasury. They also reported that at least \$75,000 had been retained illegally by the State officers from the moneys received from sales of lands. They further reported that extravagant sums, amounting to many thousands of dollars, had been paid to individuals appointed to make selection of the lands for the State.

They reported that in one County alone 124,000 acres of land had been illegally deeded away without compensation to the State in any form. Jacob Markle, Treasurer of Jasper County, was charged by the committee with having illegally withheld \$100,000, and having compromised by giving his notes for \$24,000, which had never been paid, and with being a defaulter to the State in a still further sum. While thus indebted to the State he had been appointed by the Governor a Swamp Land Commissioner. It was shown that in one case where contracts for ditching had been let at twelve cents per cubic yard, they had been raised to twenty cents, and certificates issued for that amount and land given in payment, and that the ditching

never was completed. In another County contracts had been let at four cents a yard, and raised to forty cents, and paid for at that price without the work having been done. In this case the contractor deeded one-half of the land thus obtained to the Commissioner making the contract. As the money resulting from the sale of these lands was to inure to the public schools, it is apparent that these frauds were perpetrated against the children of the State. The loss to the school fund has been variously estimated at from \$750,000 to \$2,000,000.

The next great fraud was the forgery and sale of \$2,500,000 of State certificates of stock, but from it, luckily, the State suffered no loss. When the State's efforts at constructing its great system of internal improvements failed, and the State found itself burdened with a debt of which it could not even meet the interest, it compromised with its creditors, as stated in the last chapter, by turning over to them certain canals, turnpikes and lands for one-half the amount of the debt, and issuing new bonds or certificates of stock for the remaining half. By the terms of that compromise the State was required to keep an agent in the city of New York to promptly pay the interest on the new bonds, and the principal when the bonds should become due. He was provided with new bonds to be exchanged for the old ones.

A few years afterward, the Legislature became fearful that by the connivance of the Agent of State fraudulent certificates might be issued, and changed the system, so as to require the exchanges to be made in Indianapolis by the proper State officers. Unfortunately, however, the old book of stock certificates was not destroyed, but was left in the office of the Agent of State at New York. In 1859 James A. Cravens was elected State Agent. He appointed one D. C. Stover as his clerk. After serving about nine months Mr. Cravens resigned and Stover was appointed to the vacancy by Governor Willard. He served until in February, 1861, when Colonel Hudson was elected to the position by the Legislature. Colonel Hudson had not been long in office before he discovered that a number of fraudulent certificates had been issued. He at once charged the transaction on Stover, who confessed the crime. As far as dis-

covered the fraudulent issue amounted to \$2,538,000. The certificates bore date of March, April and June, 1859, and bore the forged signatures of H. E. Talbott, as State Auditor, and of W. R. Nofsinger, as State Treasurer, notwithstanding those gentlemen had gone out of office early in 1855.

All the certificates, except \$100,000, had been issued to a man by the name of Samuel Hallett, the \$100,000 being made payable to one Deschaux. When the fraud was discovered, certificates to the amount of \$1,295,000 had been retired and destroyed by Stover. The discovery was made just about the time the State was endeavoring to negotiate a war loan, and Stover promised that if the matter was kept secret, he would take up and cancel the outstanding certificates. To this the agent of the State agreed, fearing, if a disclosure was made, it would interfere with the State obtaining money on its new loan. When the matter was brought to the attention of Governor Morton, he determined to prosecute the parties charged with the fraud, and placed all the papers in the hands of Mr. Oakey Hall, the Prosecuting Attorney of New York, the crime having been committed in that city. After an examination of the case that officer determined to take no action for the time being. This did not suit Governor Morton, and he again visited New York and insisted upon the arrest and trial of both Stover and Hallett. They were indicted, but the court quashed the indictment against Hallett on the ground that it was no offence against the laws of New York to forge certificates or obligations, purporting on their face to be executed by the State of Indiana. The prosecution of Stover was finally dropped. It has never been known whether all the fraudulent certificates were taken up by Stover or not, but as they were forged, the State has never been called upon to pay any of them. These two comprise all the serious frauds, so far as known, that have ever been perpetrated or attempted upon the State.

CHAPTER XIII.

HISTORY OF POLITICAL PARTIES.

Prior to the Revolutionary War there were practically no political parties in this country. As the discontent with the mother country grew the people divided into Whigs and Tories, the Whigs being in favor of resistance to England, and the Tories in favor of submission. At the beginning the Whigs were willing to remain as Colonies, but insisted that the rights of the Colonies should be guaranteed. However, the fever of independence grew until the rule of the mother country was rejected entirely. After the close of the Revolutionary War, and when the question of government came up, the Whigs divided in sentiment. One class of the Whigs believed that the States should be supreme, and that the Union, or confederated Government, should be confined merely to matters of defense against encroachments. They all realized the necessity for some central government, but they did not want a central government that would take from the States their independence or sovereignty. This feeling was especially strong in the smaller States. Those holding to this view were called "Particularists." They were opposed by those who believed that local self-government would be inadequate to the perpetuation of the Confederacy, and that the Central Government ought to be strong enough to protect itself in case of foreign invasion, without asking the consent of the individual States. These were called the "Strong Government Whigs." When it was found that the original confederation was too weak to accomplish the ends sought, and it was determined to form a more perfect

Union, the difference between the two classes became more marked.

Washington, Hamilton and others clung to the doctrine that the Federal Government should be supreme, and the States secondary. Jefferson and his followers wanted the States left supreme, with the Federal or Central Government restrained by conditions that would prevent it from ever invading the sovereign rights of the States. At the adoption of the constitution the people divided into two parties—Federalists and anti-Federalists. Hamilton, Madison and Jay were among the leading Federalists, while Samuel Adams and Patrick Henry, with Jefferson, led the opposition. When the constitution was finally adopted the Federalists were called “Broad Constructionists,” because they favored a construction of the constitution that would give to the Central Government the greatest possible power. Their opponents took the name of “Strict Constructionists,” as they favored holding to the strict letter, and giving the Central Government only such powers as were directly conferred, and they declared that all other powers were reserved to the States or to the people. Washington was elected President without opposition, but Jefferson strongly opposed many of his theories of government, and soon had a party which took the name of Republican. At the third election of a President this new party made itself felt, but failed of success. At the next election, however, it triumphed, its two great leaders being Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr. Jefferson was the writer, and Burr the orator and organizer, of the new party.

Madison, who had been one of the original Federalists, and who had had much to do in securing a ratification of the constitution, joined the Republicans. There had been no such things as conventions or caucuses to nominate candidates. By common consent Washington was the foremost and only one thought of for the first President, and at the end of his second term the Federalists took up John Adams, who had been Vice President. In 1800 the practice of nominating candidates for President by congressional caucus was introduced, and such a caucus put in nomination Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr, for the Re-

publicans, while John Adams was again the leader of the Federalists, without any formal nomination. The contest of 1800 broke down the Federal party. It was under Jefferson that removal from office for political reasons was first introduced into the administration of the Government. It was then that he enunciated his ideas of official life in the following language: "If a due participation of office is a matter of right, how are vacancies to be obtained? Those by death are few, by resignation none. Can any other mode than that of removal be proposed?" In 1805 the Republicans dropped their name, and assumed that of "Democrats." The opponents of the Democrats took the name of National Republicans, which was afterward changed to Whigs. At first the Whigs were confined to those who advocated the election to the Presidency of Henry Clay. They believed in internal improvements by the Government, and in a protective tariff. As the Whig party had its origin in the desire to make Henry Clay President, so it died, virtually, when that great statesman died.

In the early organization of civil government in the Territory of Indiana, there was little occasion for political parties, even had there been any disposition upon the part of the people to so divide. While in the first stage of territorial existence, all power was lodged in the hands of the Governor and the three Judges. Together they made the laws, and the Governor appointed all subordinate officers, the people not being permitted to choose even constables. When the Territory entered upon the second stage of civil life, the people were only permitted to elect members of the House of Representatives. And even there the right of suffrage was very limited. No person could be a member of the Legislative Council, which was appointed by the President, unless he was the owner of five hundred acres of land in the Territory, and before a man could become a member of the House of Representatives he must show title to two hundred acres of land. No one was entitled to vote for a member of the House unless he was the owner of fifty acres.

As has been said, all power of appointment was lodged in the hands of the Governor, but this power was never

abused by any of the Territorial executives. Still the fact that the power resided there fretted the people. In 1805 the first Legislative Council of the Territory, in replying to the address of Governor Harrison, used the following language on this subject:

“Although we are not as completely independent in our legislative capacity as we would wish to be, yet we are sensible that we must wait with patience for that period of time when our population will burst the trammels of a territorial government, and we shall assume the character more consonant to republicanism. . . . The confidence which your fellow citizens have uniformly had in your administration has been such that they have hitherto had no reason to be jealous of the unlimited power which you possess over our legislative proceedings. We, however, can not help regretting that such powers have been lodged in the hands of anyone—especially when it is recollected to what dangerous lengths the exercise of those powers may be extended.”

The Governor's veto of a bill was absolute, the ordinance establishing the government requiring his consent to make any legislation effective. In 1807 the Territorial Legislature attempted to extend the right of suffrage by an enactment of its own, and the next year Congress defined the qualification for voters as follows: “Every free white male person in the Indiana territory, above the age of twenty-one years, having been a citizen of the United States and a resident in the said territory one year next preceding an election of representatives, and who has a legal or equitable title to a tract of land of quantity of fifty acres, or who may become the purchaser from the United States, of a tract of land of the quantity of fifty acres, or who holds, in his own right, a town lot of the value of one hundred dollars, shall be entitled to vote for representatives to the general assembly of the said territory.”

This was an improvement, but it was not all the people desired, and they kept on petitioning Congress for a more liberal election law. They also wanted a revision of the Ordinance of 1787 so as to permit them to choose the Legislative Council as well as the members of the House of

Representatives, and also to elect a delegate to Congress, that power being then lodged in the hands of the Legislature. At last, in 1809, Congress gave the people the right to elect a delegate to Congress, and in 1811 the importunities of the people overcame all obstacles, and the right to vote for members of the territorial legislature and for congressional delegate was granted to every "white male person who had attained the age of twenty-one years, and who, having paid a county or territorial tax, and who had resided in the Territory for one year." In 1814 the tax clause was stricken out, but it was still required that the voter should be a free holder. When the people adopted a State constitution the property clause was not inserted, but the right to vote at all elections by the people was given to every white male citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years and upwards, who had resided in the State one year immediately preceding such election, except such as shall be enlisted in the armies of the United States or their allies. Under the first State constitution members of the House of Representatives were elected for one year, Senators for three years, and the Governor for three years. The other State officers were chosen by the General Assembly to hold their offices for a term of three years.

In the early years of Indiana, under the Territorial and State Governments, party politics was unknown. Caucuses or conventions were never held. When it came time to elect officers, anybody who desired to become a candidate, announced himself as such, and ran upon his own merits. Their friends were denominated as "Smith men," "Jones men" or "Brown men," as the case might be. It was frequently the case that from ten to twenty candidates were running for the same office. Stump speaking was also an unknown quantity, until some time after the formation of the State Government. It is true that when Jonathan Jennings became a candidate for the place of delegate to Congress, against Thomas Randolph, he made many speeches, but such methods of campaigning were not common. It is possible that these were the first political speeches ever made in Indiana. The question at issue at that time, and for several years after, was the admission of slaves into

the Territory. The people were divided upon this issue. Party names, such as Whigs and Democrats, were unknown. Slavery had crept into the Territory under the old French rule and continued under the British; and the first Anglo-American settlers were mainly from Virginia, and had brought with them into the Territory their Virginia ideas of the "peculiar institution."

Among the early settlers, however, were many who were opposed to that institution, and they determined to fight the admission of slavery into the Territory. The Ordinance of 1787 contained a clause prohibiting slavery in all the new Northwest Territory, but many of the citizens made a determined effort to secure the repeal of that clause, Governor Harrison being the leader of the advocates of slavery. Until the final destruction of slavery throughout the Union, political parties in Indiana were divided upon that issue, notwithstanding slavery itself had been prohibited by the constitution of the State. Thus it was for several years under the Territorial Government. When it came time to elect a delegate to Congress, the parties were known as the Slavery and anti-Slavery parties. In local elections, however, the people divided, as has been stated, and called themselves by the names of their chiefs. In the great Presidential election when John Quincy Adams, Andrew Jackson, Henry Clay, William H. Crawford and John C. Calhoun were candidates for the Presidency, the friends of each called themselves Adams men, Jackson men, Crawford men, etc. Four years later the names Whig and Democrat were adopted, the Whigs being for Adams and the Democrats for Jackson.

In 1840 the greatest political contest took place that had ever been waged in the State. General William Henry Harrison, who had at one time been the Governor of Indiana Territory, and had fought and won the famous battle of Tippecanoe, was the candidate of the Whig party, against Martin Van Buren, who was then occupying the Presidential chair. General Harrison lived in a small and modest house at North Bend, on the Ohio River, only a few miles from the Indiana line. By way of derision he had been called by the Democrats the Log Cabin and Hard Cider candidate, and his friends took up those terms and

they became the party battle cry. It was the first year in which processions, parades and barbecues became a part of political campaign work. Throughout the length and breadth of the land, from Massachusetts to Georgia, great processions paraded the streets and country roads, carrying with them miniature log cabins, and barrels of hard cider. In no State of the Union, however, did political excitement run higher than in Indiana.

The Whigs saw their chance, and took advantage of it. Barbecues in political campaigns were essentially an Indiana feature. During the campaign a great meeting was held at Tippecanoe battle ground, which was attended by many thousands of people from all parts of the State, and some even from Kentucky. Although the State was but sparsely settled at that time, great parades were held almost weekly, with hundreds of men on horseback and on foot, and hundreds of women in wagons. Coonskins, barrels of hard cider, log cabins and campaign songs were the principal features. That year, too, the Whigs had the advantage of their opponents in the way of public speakers, and for months stump speaking was the order of the day. The Whigs were successful.

In 1852, in the memorable contest between Franklin Pierce and Winfield Scott, the Whigs were so disastrously defeated that the party practically went out of existence. There had been growing up, for some time, a strong anti-slavery sentiment throughout the country; part of this sentiment was in favor of a total abolition of slavery, and another part went only to a restriction of the institution to the States wherein it then existed. The Whig party, on its dissolution, divided, part going to the Democrats and a part to the anti-slavery or Free-soil party. This party rapidly increased in numbers owing to efforts that were made to extend the area of slavery, and while quite a number of Democrats still retained their places in their party, and called themselves Free-soil Democrats, in Congress and other places they united with the old anti-slavery remnant of the Whigs. About this time there came up a new party, which for a while threatened to sweep the country. It was based on opposition to the Roman Catholic church. It called itself the Native American

party, but was popularly known as the "Know-Nothing" party. Its meetings were always held in secret, its candidates were named in the same style, and its vote was cast in the same way.

From the very nature of things such a party could not long exist in a country with free institutions, but in some of the States it was successful in electing State officers, members of the Legislature and members of Congress. In this State it did not gain quite so strong a foothold, but in many of the Counties succeeded in electing its candidates, and in one or two instances, elected members of Congress. To add to the political complications of the times, a temperance excitement swept over the State, and for a while dominated the party opposed to the Democrats. So it was that in 1854 the "People's Party," a combination of free-soil Democrats, anti-slavery Whigs, some of the Know-Nothings and the Temperance men, was successful at the State election, not only electing the State officers, but securing a majority in both houses of the General Assembly. Among the results of this victory was the passage of a prohibitory liquor law, copied after that of Maine. This defeat in 1854 was in the nature of a surprise to the Democrats. They had deemed themselves strong enough to overcome the free-soil and abolition parties, but the addition of the temperance element had wrested victory from them.

The slavery controversy was becoming more and more intense, and the opposition to that institution more determined. By the Missouri compromise slavery had been forever prohibited in the new territories in the West and Northwest, but an effort had been made in Congress to repeal that compromise and permit the people of the Territories to determine the question of the admission of slavery for themselves. This aroused the most bitter antagonism throughout the North, and the Know-Nothing party having dissolved, a new party known by the name of "Republican" was formed. In Indiana most of the leaders of the old Whig party, together with many prominent Democrats, especially among the younger members of that party, united themselves with the new Republican party. In 1856 the first contest between the Democratic party that had ruled the State during its entire existence, with the

exception of twelve years, and the new Republican party, with its watchword of Free Men and Free Soil, took place.

Oliver P. Morton, of Wayne County, who had formerly been prominently identified with the Democratic party, was nominated by the Republicans for Governor, and Ashbel P. Willard by the Democrats. They were both young men and of commanding talents, Mr. Willard ranking as one of the most eloquent orators of the day. It was a memorable contest. The two leading candidates united in a joint canvass of the State, speaking day after day before great crowds. This new party was given its name, Republican, in Indiana, although it had its birth in Michigan. Many of the old Abolitionists of the State united with the new party, but quite a number continued to fight for the straight doctrine of abolitionism. This latter party never controlled any large number of votes in Indiana, although its leader, George W. Julian, was at one time its candidate for the Vice Presidency. He afterward became a prominent leader in the new Republican party. In this contest of 1856 there still remained an element of the old Know-Nothing party in the State, which followed the lead of Millard Fillmore. That year there were three candidates for the Presidency: James Buchanan, Democrat; John C. Fremont, Republican, and Millard Fillmore, American. The American or Know-Nothing party, however, did not run a State ticket and its vote for State officers was divided between the Republicans and the Democrats, the most of them, however, going to the Republicans. The Democrats were successful in the election, but the fact was disclosed that this new party had been born a political giant.

It was supposed that in the intensity of feeling and in the excitement, no political campaign would ever equal that of 1840, but it became a shadow when compared with that of 1860. From 1856 to 1860 the feeling of opposition to the extension of slavery had grown in intensity and in strength. The bloody struggle in Kansas had crystallized this feeling of opposition to slavery, until the country was on the eve of a political revolution. The Democratic party divided in twain in 1860. Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, who had been the main instigator of the

repeal of the Missouri Compromise, and who had been the father of the doctrine known in those days as "Squatter-sovereignty," was the candidate of the Northern wing of the Democratic party for the Presidency. The convention of that party met at Charleston, South Carolina, and although Mr. Douglas had a clear majority of the delegates, he was bitterly opposed by those from the South, and was unable to secure the necessary two-thirds to nominate him, quite a number of the Northern delegates voting against him in the interest of the South.

After a prolonged struggle, in which great bitterness was manifested, the convention adjourned to meet on a subsequent day at Baltimore, Maryland. When it re-assembled the same bitter feeling was manifested and finally culminated in the withdrawal of the Southern delegates to Richmond, Virginia. Mr. Douglas was nominated by the delegates who remained at Baltimore, and Herschel V. Johnson, of Georgia, was nominated for the Vice Presidency. The Southern delegates, at Richmond, nominated John C. Breckinridge, of Kentucky, and Joseph Lane, of Oregon, for President and Vice President. John Bell, of Tennessee, and Edward Everett, of Massachusetts, were nominated by a party which styled itself the "Constitutional Union" party.

In 1858 Mr. Douglas and Abraham Lincoln had been opposing candidates for the United States Senate in Illinois, and held joint debates which had attracted the attention of the whole country. The Republicans throughout the country discovered, by that debate, that a new giant had arisen in their party, and his name at once became connected with the Presidency. At that time the roll of the Republican party contained many of the most distinguished names in American history, among them being William H. Seward, of New York; Charles Sumner, of Massachusetts; Salmon P. Chase, of Ohio, and Simon Cameron, of Pennsylvania.

The name of each of these had also been discussed in connection with the leadership in the great contest all saw was to come. Prior to his debate with Douglas, Mr. Lincoln was hardly known outside of his own State of Illinois, although he had served one term as a member of Congress.

Mr. Seward was looked upon by the great majority of the party as its great leader and champion, and upon him all eyes had been turned, and it was confidently expected he would be the nominee. That Mr. Lincoln was selected instead was mainly due to Indiana, and therefore an account of that contest has a proper place in any history of politics in the State. Henry S. Lane, of Montgomery County, had been nominated by the Republicans as their candidate for Governor, and Oliver P. Morton, who had led the party in its first contest, in 1856, had been named for Lieutenant Governor. Andrew G. Curtin had been nominated by the Republicans of Pennsylvania as their candidate for Governor. The elections for State officers in those two States occurred in October, prior to that for President. It was felt that those two States must return a Republican majority in October, if national success was to be expected in November, hence the party at large, and more especially the two candidates for Governor mentioned, were deeply interested in the selection of some man as a candidate for President who could carry those two States. In both of them there was a strong undercurrent of opposition to Mr. Seward. Mr. Lane and Mr. Curtin became satisfied that if they were to succeed, it would be necessary for them to receive not only the vote of the Republicans but of the remnants of the old American or Know-Nothing party, which was still quite strong, both in Pennsylvania and in Indiana.

The Americans were opposed to Seward, and Lane and Curtin united to secure his defeat. Among the others who had been talked about for the Presidential nomination, besides those already mentioned, was Edward Bates, of Missouri. Mr. Curtin favored him, but Mr. Lane declared that he would be no stronger in Indiana than Mr. Seward, and favored Mr. Lincoln. At that time some of the Illinois delegates favored Mr. Seward, but Mr. Lane and Mr. Curtin united in assuring the friends of Mr. Lincoln that if the Illinois delegation would stand solidly for him, Indiana and Pennsylvania would join them. This was done, and when the convention met at Chicago, in May, Mr. Lincoln was nominated on the third ballot. The campaign that followed was wonderful in many ways. It was characterized

by more bitterness than any that had preceded it. It may also be said that it was characterized by more enthusiasm. Mr. Lincoln, in his earlier days, had worked on a farm and had split rails for fencing. He had also made a trip or two down the Mississippi River on a flatboat.

Almost immediately after his nomination he was styled "The Rail Splitter" and "The Flat-boatman." Republican clubs were organized throughout the entire North, who called themselves "Wide Awakes." Logs, rails, and flatboats took the place in the processions that in 1840 had been occupied by coon skins, log cabins and hard cider. In Indiana the struggle was one of the most intense bitterness. The followers of Breckinridge were not so strong in numbers as they were in political leadership, and they were very active, fighting Douglas almost as bitterly as they did Mr. Lincoln. Thomas A. Hendricks, who afterwards became Vice President of the United States, was the Democratic candidate for Governor, and he and Mr. Lane made a joint canvass. For many years Mr. Lane had been known as the "Silver-tongued Orator," while Mr. Hendricks was one of the ablest political debaters ever produced by the State. Mr. Lane was both eloquent and humorous, interlarding his speeches with humorous stories and anecdotes, always creating laughter and enthusiasm, while Mr. Hendricks was plausible and argumentative. As a political debater Mr. Hendricks was, no doubt, the superior, while as a stump speaker, calculated to win the applause and votes of the mixed crowds who in those days attended political meetings, he was greatly excelled by Mr. Lane. Mr. Morton, and his opponent, David Turpie, also engaged in a joint canvass. Every part of the State was visited by those champions of the two political schools. Never before in the history of Indiana had there been such political processions and demonstrations as those which characterized the campaign of 1860. Each party tried to outdo the other in this respect. Mr. Douglas himself visited the State, and his party gave him a reception at Indianapolis in which it was estimated fully seventy-five thousand people took part. The election for State officers in October resulted in favor of the Republicans, and they carried the day again in November. As is well known this tri-

umph of the Republicans was followed by the secession of eleven Southern States, which resulted in civil war.

During the Civil War the name Republican was dropped and that of the "Union Party" substituted. This party was composed of the Republicans and War Democrats, the latter being Democrats who favored the prosecution of the war and the maintenance of the Union. The Democrats, however, who retained their places in their party ranks were, for the most part, Union men, but they antagonized earnestly the policy of the administration and its conduct of the war. From 1861 until after the close of the war the two parties contesting for the control of the State were the Democratic and the Union, but on the close of the war, the Republicans assumed their former name. When President Andrew Johnson and the Republican party quarreled, many of the War Democrats in Indiana followed Johnson back to their old party, but some of them remained with the Republicans.

The contest of 1864 was in many respects a desperate one, more lawlessness occurring than in any other campaign the State has ever witnessed. The Democrats in their national convention had declared that four years of war having failed to restore the Union, there should be a cessation of hostilities. A large number of arrests had been made in the State by military officers, for one offense or another; the Knights of the Golden Circle had made their appearance in the State, and everything tended to lawlessness, as party bitterness was extreme. President Lincoln was the Union candidate for re-election, and the Democrats had nominated General George B. McClellan. Governor Morton and Joseph E. McDonald were the opposing candidates for Governor. The Republicans felt that it was absolutely necessary that they control the Legislature, as Governor Morton for two years had been running the State Government on money borrowed without authority of law, and his acts could only be legalized by a General Assembly in political sympathy with him. The victories of the Union armies under Sheridan in the Valley and Sherman in Georgia foreshadowed the downfall of the Confederacy, so it soon became evident that Mr. Lincoln would be

re-elected, but in Indiana the result, so far as the Legislature was concerned, was in great doubt.

Political rallies were held almost everywhere, and in many cases were accompanied by bloodshed. Newspaper offices were mobbed in several parts of the State, and fatal personal encounters were occurring almost daily. One of the unique features of the campaign was witnessed in Monroe County. The County was close, politically, and a State Senator was to be elected. The Republicans obtained a cannon and with that canvassed the County. They went about from Township to Township, firing their cannon along the roads, and with it and their martial band, gathered the crowds to hear their speakers. The cannon worked two ways—it aroused the enthusiasm of the Republicans and got them out to the meetings, and it overawed the opposition. Similar devices were resorted to in other Counties.

In 1868 the contest was not so intense. The war had ended, the soldiers had returned to their homes, and while some acts of lawlessness occurred, they were the exceptions and not the rule. General Grant was the candidate of the Republicans, and Horatio Seymour of the Democrats. Conrad Baker and Thomas A. Hendricks were the opposing candidates for Governor. Mr. Baker was then the acting Governor, having taken the place on the election of Mr. Morton to the United States Senate. The State has known few political leaders with as much skill and such great sagacity in the management of his party, or of a campaign, as Mr. Hendricks, and he came very near carrying the State for the Democrats in October. After the close of the war there had been a shifting of party lines. Many Democrats who had for a while acted with the Republicans had returned to their former party allegiance, and there was considerable opposition to the reconstruction methods of Congress. Mr. Hendricks took advantage of all these things, and the result in October was a great surprise to the Republicans.

In 1872, owing to opposition to President Grant, not only many of the War Democrats who had remained in the Republican party, but also a great number of the Republicans left their party and joined in a new one called "Liberal Republican." This party nominated for its candidate

for the Presidency, Horace Greeley, of New York, with B. Gratz Brown, of Missouri, for Vice President. They were endorsed by the Democrats, and were the opposing candidates to President Grant and Henry Wilson. Thomas A. Hendricks was the Democratic candidate for Governor of Indiana, opposed by General Thomas M. Browne. The election in October resulted in favor of Mr. Hendricks, but the Republicans elected all their other State candidates, with the exception of Superintendent of Public Instruction. The vote on all the candidates was very close, but in November, owing to the dissatisfaction of the Democrats with Mr. Greeley, General Grant carried the State by a large majority.

In 1873 a new party was organized. It was brought into life by a desire to ease in some way the financial burden then resting upon the country. Its principal demand was for an unlimited issue of greenback currency, and it took the name of "Greenback." It became very strong in some of the States, and in Indiana, in 1876, polled about 30,000 votes, but it never succeeded in electing any State officer, although it did elect in some of the Counties not only members of the Legislature but some of the County officers. It maintained an organization until it was finally swallowed by the Labor or People's party. About the same time the temperance excitement again grew strong, and a prohibition party was formed. At nearly every election since then this party has had its candidates in the field, but has never succeeded in polling more than 12,000 or 13,000 votes in the State. In 1873 the Republican Legislature enacted a very stringent temperance law, known as the "Baxter Law." From 1860 up to that time, with the single exception of from 1863 to 1865, the Republicans had controlled the State, but, as has been stated, Mr. Hendricks had been elected Governor in 1872. The passage of this Baxter Law lost to the Republicans the German vote, and in 1874 they were badly defeated. Two years later the State cast its vote not only for the Democratic State ticket, but for Tilden and Hendricks, the Democratic candidates for President and Vice President. Since that time Indiana has been debatable ground for the two great parties, sometimes going for one and sometimes for the other.

It was in 1876 that money was first introduced into the State as a potent power in politics. The State remained under the control of the Democrats until 1881.

In 1880 occurred another great campaign. The result in 1876 had encouraged the Democrats in the belief that they could wrest control of the Government from the Republicans. They nominated as their candidates General Winfield S. Hancock, one of the most gallant commanders of the Civil War, and William H. English, of Indiana. The nominations were received enthusiastically, although there was some soreness because the convention had not nominated the old ticket of 1876. That ticket had, as every Democrat and many Republicans believed, been wrongfully kept out of power. There was an almost universal Democratic sentiment in favor of its re-nomination. But Mr. Hendricks would not again consent to take the second place. The record of General Hancock was much in his favor, and as it was readily seen the result of the election would depend upon the two doubtful States, Indiana and New York, it was thought that the great political skill of Mr. English would carry Indiana. Indiana was still an October State, and it was felt on every side that the Presidential election would actually be fought in October, so both parties lined up for a great battle in Indiana. Franklin Landers was the Democratic nominee for Governor, and Albert G. Porter, of the Republicans.

Mr. Porter was one of the most persuasive speakers in the State, and possessed rare elements of popularity. He at once entered upon an active canvass of the State. His party felt it was fighting for its life. The Democrats were equally in earnest, and for three months the battle was waged. Every effort was put forth by both parties, and the State was canvassed as never before. The election resulted in favor of the Republicans. The Democrats still hoped to secure a reversal of the verdict in November, but the fates were against them. They had calculated somewhat on a supposed disaffection among the Republicans, owing to a contest in their national convention. When the Republican convention met that year, in Chicago, the two leading candidates before it were James G. Blaine and ex-President Grant. General Grant had served two terms,

and had been followed by Mr. Hayes. While General Grant was absent, making a tour of the world, his friends, headed by Mr. Conkling, of New York, and General Logan, of Illinois, put forward his name for the nomination for a third term. The contest in the convention was waged with a great deal of bitterness, until the friends of Mr. Blaine brought about the nomination of James A. Garfield, of Ohio. There were some evidences of a revolt in the party against General Garfield, and the Democrats had hoped that the lukewarmness of some of the leading Republicans would result in their favor, but in this they were disappointed.

In the campaign of 1880 it was charged by the Democrats that the Republicans had used large sums of money for corrupt purposes. There is no doubt that vast sums of money were used by both parties. One result of the controversy was to turn the attention of the people to the necessity of a more careful guardianship of the ballot. Prior to that time the constitution contained no provision requiring a definite period of residence in a county or precinct to entitle a person to vote. It was a lame place in the constitution, and one that opened a wide door for frauds upon the ballot box. An effort had been made to amend the constitution in this respect, and the people had voted upon the proposed amendment, but the Supreme Court had held that the amendment had not been adopted. With other amendments it was again submitted to a vote, and adopted by a large majority. At the same election the time of choosing State officers was changed to November. This was a great step in advance, but still did not afford sufficient protection to the ballot box, and it was not until 1889 that a new election law was enacted. This law introduced what has been known as the Australian system. It requires an absolutely secret ballot. The State furnishes a ballot upon which the names of the candidates of all parties for State officers are printed, and the Counties furnish the ballots for the County candidates. No other ballots are permitted to be used, and the voter designates, by the use of a mark, the names of those for whom he wishes to cast his ballot.

Temperance legislation by the Republicans in 1881 lost them the State again, and it was not until 1888 that

they recovered it, but they did not succeed in obtaining a majority in both branches of the General Assembly until 1894.

In 1888 the Republicans, at their National convention, held at Chicago in June, nominated General Benjamin Harrison, of Indiana, as their candidate for President. This precipitated on the State the most hotly contested political battle it had ever known. In 1886 the Republicans had succeeded in electing their State ticket by small pluralities. General Harrison was then a Senator in Congress and was seeking re-election. The Legislature was Democratic on joint ballot and he was defeated. The candidacy of Mr. Harrison in 1888 added intense interest to the contest in Indiana. The election resulted in favor of the Republicans on both National and State tickets.

The Labor party, like the Prohibition party, never was able to cast more than a few thousand votes, and in 1894 it and the remnants of the old Greenback party united under the general name of "Populists." The Republicans had carried the election of 1888, electing the State ticket and giving the electoral vote to General Benjamin Harrison for President, but in 1890 and 1892 the tide swept back again to the Democrats. In 1894, as an outcome of the great depression in business, the Republicans succeeded in carrying the State by the largest plurality ever given to any political party in Indiana, and gained control of both branches of the Legislature, for the first time since 1872. For the first time in seventy years all the Congressmen elected in Indiana were members of the same political party. In that year the Republicans succeeded in carrying all the thirteen districts. Owing to a division among the democrats on the money question the Republicans carried the State in 1896 and again in 1900. In 1896 the Populists and the Democrats united upon an electoral ticket, but each party ran its own candidates for State officers. In that year the Prohibition party also divided and ran two tickets.

From the very beginning Indiana has always been a very close State, politically speaking. It first appeared in a Presidential election in 1820, when it cast its electoral vote for James Monroe. From that time until 1836 it gave

Democratic majorities at each election for President, but that year it gave Harrison 5800 majority, and four years later it gave him more than fourteen thousand. It was not until 1860 that the State again voted in opposition to the Democracy, that party, on the vote for President, steadily holding about fifteen thousand plurality, but only with one exception, 1852, did it reach anything like such figures on the State ticket. The first five Governors were Democrats, but with the exceptions of William Hendricks, who had no opposition, and of Jonathan Jennings, at his second election, the pluralities did not reach three thousand. Beginning with 1831 the Whigs carried the State at four successive elections, internal improvements being the main issue. Their pluralities ran from 2791 at the first election, to 8645, at the last. The Democrats then again got control, and held it until 1860. In 1852 Joseph A. Wright was elected by a plurality of more than 20,000. The other pluralities were small. In 1864 Oliver P. Morton carried the State by 20,883, but since that time success has fluctuated between the two parties, neither reaching 9000, in a presidential year, until 1896, when the Republicans won by about 18,000.

In the earlier political campaigns the newspapers wielded a vast influence, but the main reliance of the parties was upon their stump speakers, as they were called. Indiana did not have a large number of newspapers within its borders, and, with one or two exceptions, they were all of local circulation. The old Whigs depended upon the New York Tribune, the Cincinnati Gazette and the Louisville Journal, while the Democrats had for their great organ the Louisville Courier. Perhaps no country ever possessed four papers wielding a like influence. Through Southern Indiana for many years hardly a Whig or Republican family could be found that did not have the Cincinnati Gazette, while through Central and Northern Indiana the New York Tribune circulated thousands of copies weekly. The papers mentioned, together with the Indianapolis Sentinel and Journal, the New Albany Ledger and the South Bend Register, led and formed political thought in the State. Speeches were not circulated in pamphlet form then as now, so the people, in order to get the argu-

ments of the speakers were obliged to attend the meetings. The fame of many of those speakers has come down to the present day.

The halls of the State Legislature have witnessed several exciting political contests, especially over the election of Senators in Congress. The first notable contest occurred in 1836. Four candidates were before the Legislature—Governor Noah Noble, Senator William Hendricks, Oliver H. Smith, and Ratliff Boon. Mr. Hendricks was the candidate of the Democrats, while Smith and Noble contested for the votes of the Whigs. When the balloting began Smith was third in the race, but he gathered strength until the ninth ballot, when he was elected. It had generally been thought that Governor Noble would succeed. He had long had an ambition to go to the Senate, but his manners were austere, while those of Smith were exceedingly pleasant, which redounded to the latter's advantage. Six years later Smith, in turn, was defeated after a most exciting contest. He was the candidate of the Whigs, and Tilghman A. Howard of the Democrats. In Wayne County, a reliable Whig County, owing to local differences over the removal of the County seat, David Hoover, a Democrat, had been elected to the Legislature, but under a pledge to vote for Smith. Daniel Kelso, the Democratic member from Switzerland County, did not like Howard, and it was understood that he, too, was pledged to Smith. When the balloting began Hoover voted for Smith and Kelso for Edward A. Hannegan. Hoover changed to Hannegan, and the balloting went on until Howard withdrew from the race, and Hannegan was elected.

Among the great Democratic leaders of the State, prior to the war, was Jesse D. Bright, of Madison, who for seventeen years had represented the State in the United States Senate, and at one time had been President of that body. In 1862 he was expelled from the Senate on a charge of treason for writing the following letter:

“Washington, D. C., March 1, 1861.

“My Dear Sir:—Allow me to introduce to your acquaintance my friend, Thomas Lincoln, of Texas. He visits your capital mainly to dispose of what he regards a great im-

provement to fire-arms. I recommend him to your favorable consideration as a gentleman of the first respectability, and reliable in every respect.

"Very truly yours,

JESSE D. BRIGHT.

"To His Excellency, Jefferson Davis, President of the Confederation of States."

The main objection to this letter was that it was addressed to Jefferson Davis as President of the Confederate States, thereby recognizing the act of secession as legal. In this connection it will not be out of place as a part of the political history of Indiana to give an account of Mr. Bright's first election to the Senate. In 1845 he was the Lieutenant Governor of the State, and as such was the presiding officer of the State Senate. The Whigs had succeeded in electing a majority of the members of the House of Representatives, and the Senate was a tie with the casting vote in the hands of Mr. Bright. At that time there was no United States law governing the manner of electing United States Senators, the Legislatures of the various States being left to their own devices. A Senator was to be elected from Indiana, and the Whigs had a majority on joint ballot. The Senate, however, by the casting vote of Mr. Bright, persistently refused to go into a joint convention, and thereby defeated the election of a Senator. One year afterward the Democrats succeeded in getting control on joint ballot, and Mr. Bright himself became a candidate for that position. He was elected and took his seat only a short time after he became of an age that qualified him for membership in that body, being the youngest man, up to that time, who had ever been elected to the United States Senate from Indiana, except James Noble, elected in 1846.

In 1855 came another memorable contest for the United States Senatorship, in which Mr. Bright also figured. The Democrats had a majority of two in the Senate, while the House contained a majority of sixteen of the Republican or anti-Nebraska party, giving the latter a majority of fourteen on joint ballot. Again the Senate refused to go into a joint convention, and for two years the State was left with but one Senator. Two years later the Democrats got control again on joint ballot, but the opposition controlled the Senate. Without warning, one day, the Democratic Sena-

tors, headed by the Democratic Lieutenant Governor, left their seats in the Senate and went over to the hall of the House, and there formed a joint convention by which two Senators were elected—Graham N. Fitch, of Logansport, for the term of four years, and Mr. Bright, for a term of six, to succeed himself.

The Republican members of the General Assembly protested against this election, but the United States Senate decided that it could not take cognizance of a Legislative protest. The only way by which the seat of a Senator could be questioned was by contest. In 1859 Colonel Henry S. Lane and Colonel William M. McCarty were elected, by the Republican members of the Legislature, to contest the seats of Bright and Fitch, but the contest was decided against them. Upon the expulsion of Mr. Bright from the Senate, Governor Morton appointed to the vacancy Joseph A. Wright, who had twice been elected Governor of the State by the Democrats, and who, during the administration of President Buchanan, had represented the country at Berlin. Mr. Wright had long been the political rival of Mr. Bright. When secession came he identified himself with the Union party, with which he acted until his death. The Legislature of 1863, being Democratic, elected David Turpie for Mr. Bright's unexpired term and Thomas A. Hendricks for the full term.

In 1869 a contest arose over the election of a United States Senator which threatened for a while to disrupt the Republican party. The term for which Thomas A. Hendricks had been elected, was about to expire. In 1868 Conrad Baker, who was acting Governor, filling out the unexpired term of Governor Morton, who had been elected to the Senate, and Will Cumback were opposing candidates for the nomination for Governor by the Republicans. Senator Hendricks had been nominated as the Democratic candidate, and it was supposed by some that he would resign his seat in the Senate pending the election of Governor. Mr. Cumback, while a candidate for the nomination for Governor, was really aiming at the Senate, and on the supposition that Mr. Hendricks would resign, wrote a letter to Governor Baker, telling him that his ambitions were for the Senate, rather than for Governor; and as who

ever might receive the temporary appointment for Senator would have the advantage when it came to electing a member for the full term, he asked for the appointment, saying that in case he should receive it, it would necessarily take him out of the race for Governor. This letter was not made public, but Governor Baker let it be known to some of his friends that he had received it. Senator Hendricks did not resign, and consequently there was no appointment to be made. Baker was nominated for Governor and Cumback for Lieutenant Governor. They were both elected. When the Legislature met, Cumback received the caucus nomination of his party for Senator, but four or five members refused to vote for him, and a resolution was introduced in the Legislature setting forth that reports were current that Governor Baker had received a letter from Mr. Cumback, which in its nature was an attempt to bribe that officer, and asking the Governor to furnish the Legislature with a copy of the letter. This was done, and finally the name of Mr. Cumback was withdrawn and Daniel D. Pratt, of Logansport, who had lately been elected to Congress, was chosen Senator.

The Democrats made the most of this matter, and for many years pursued Mr. Cumback with a repetition of charges against his integrity. Among the Republicans, however, there was a diversity of opinion, many of the leaders condemning Governor Baker for his action in the matter. The affair caused great excitement throughout the State for many years, and resulted, in the opinion of many, in the defeat of the Republicans at the next election for Governor.

In 1886 occurred a very peculiar political contest. Isaac P. Gray was Governor at the time, and was said to have some aspirations for a seat in the United States Senate. General Mahlon D. Manson was Lieutenant Governor. General Benjamin Harrison was United States Senator, and his term was to expire on the 4th of March, 1887. General Manson was tendered a position under the Federal Government, and by accepting it vacated his office as Lieutenant Governor. The political complications arising from this vacation developed some peculiarly weak places in the constitution of the State. The constitution makes provision

for the filling of vacancies in all offices in the State, with the exception of that of Lieutenant Governor, unless it can be construed that in case of a vacancy in that office the Governor has the right to appoint, under the general provision of the organic law, which gives him the power to fill vacancies. If it should be construed that the Governor has the power to appoint, the State would present the strange anomaly of allowing a Governor to appoint a man who might become his own successor. Among the duties of the Lieutenant Governor, and about the only duty he has to perform as such officer, is that of presiding over the deliberations of the Senate. The constitution provides how those duties shall be performed in his absence, or when there is a vacancy. According to the constitution the only time when the Senate can choose its own presiding officer is when the Lieutenant Governor is acting as Governor, or "shall be unable to attend as President of the Senate," and the constitution declares that the Senate can only elect a temporary presiding officer for the occasion.

A custom had grown up for the Senate, about the close of each session, to elect one of its members as "President pro tempore." At the close of the session of 1885, the Senators elected A. G. Smith, Senator from Jennings County, President pro tempore, in accordance with this custom. At that time no one dreamed of the election being anything more than honorary, but it afterward caused a political contest in which arose many complicated questions. As has been stated, Governor Gray had aspirations for a seat in the United States Senate. In these aspirations he met with some opposition in his own party. Mr. Smith also had some enemies in his party, and when Lieutenant Governor Manson vacated his office the enemies of Governor Gray took occasion to declare that such vacation eliminated the Governor from the Senatorial race, for two reasons: First, because the party would not agree that Mr. Smith should succeed as Governor, and secondly, because the Republicans might get control of the Senate and be able to elect a member of that party as President of the Senate, and he would succeed to the Governorship in case of a vacancy in that office. Some one conceived the idea that the people alone had the right to fill the vacancy in the office of Lieu-

tenant Governor, and the question was submitted to the Attorney General by Governor Gray. The Attorney General gave it as his opinion that the people at the next general election should choose a new Lieutenant Governor. Upon this opinion the Governor issued his proclamation for such an election. All political parties nominated candidates, the election resulting in favor of the candidate of the Republicans.

When the Senate met in 1887, it refused to acknowledge the validity of the election, and claimed that Senator Smith, by virtue of his election as President pro tempore, in 1885, was the real presiding officer of the Senate. The Republicans, on the other hand, contended that their candidate, Robert S. Robertson, having received the highest number of votes, was duly elected, and was entitled to the seat. He was duly sworn into office by the House of Representatives, a majority of that body being Republican, but the Senate, being Democratic, refused to permit him to enter the chamber in any other capacity than that of a private citizen. The contest got into the courts in various ways, but the main question was never settled. The struggle between the two parties lasted during the entire session, preventing any legislation of consequence, and gave rise to a number of turbulent and violent scenes.

Neither party was right in its contentions. As has been said, the Senate, under the constitution, could only choose a presiding officer in certain specified contingencies, and his powers ended when the contingency which gave rise to them ended. Neither of the contingencies existed at the time when Senator Smith was claimed to have been chosen, and had either of them existed, the power conferred upon him by such election would have ceased when the session of the Senate came to an end by constitutional limitation. This has been the uniform practice in the Senate from the first establishment of the State Government. The three most notable cases will be briefly referred to. In 1824, just before the close of the session of the Legislature, the Hon. Ratliff Boon resigned his office of Lieutenant Governor, and Senator James Brown Ray was elected as President pro tempore. At the next session of the Senate, there still being no Lieutenant Governor,

the question arose whether Senator Ray was not, by virtue of his previous election, the lawful presiding officer of the Senate. It was decided by the Senate that his powers and duties ceased at the final adjournment of the Senate at the previous session, and that the Senate must proceed to elect a new President. Mr. Ray was re-elected, and while serving as President of the Senate became acting Governor, on the resignation of Governor Hendricks, it being the only instance in this State of a President pro tempore of the Senate becoming Governor.

The second notable case was in 1845. The Hon. Jesse D. Bright, Lieutenant Governor of the State, had been elected to the United States Senate, and had resigned his office of Lieutenant Governor. Here was another of those cases wherein the Senate has the undoubted right to elect its presiding officer. The Senate was a tie politically, and a great contest arose. James Whitcomb was Governor, but he might die or resign, and the Democrats did not want to risk a Whig following him. The balloting continued for several days, until on the ninety-ninth ballot Godlove S. Orth was elected, but with the distinct understanding that the election carried no rights or powers with it beyond the end of the session of the Senate.

The next case arose at the beginning of the regular session of the Senate in 1873. Will Cumback had been Lieutenant Governor, but like General Manson, had vacated his office to accept one under the Federal Government. A special session of the General Assembly was held in 1872, and George W. Friedley, Senator from Lawrence County, was elected President pro tempore of the Senate. At the general election in 1872, Leonidas Sexton was elected Lieutenant Governor, but made no attempt to take his seat until the date fixed by the constitution. So, when the regular session of the General Assembly opened in January, 1873, there was still no Lieutenant Governor, and the question arose if Senator Friedley was not the presiding officer without the formality of another election, but, as was held in the case of Senator Ray, the Senate unanimously decided that he could not act without a re-election, and he was again chosen. A few days afterward Mr. Sexton took the oath of office. At a later period it was impossible,

at one time, for him to be present and preside, and again the question came up as to the powers of Senator Friedley, when it was held that his election on the first day of the session ended when the Lieutenant Governor took his seat, and he was again chosen. It will be seen from these three rulings that the contention on behalf of Senator Smith, in 1887, was against the precedents, but the Senate acquiesced in his presiding, and that might be held as tantamount to a new election.

The contention of the Republicans was equally at fault. The constitution, in plain terms, fixes the times at which a Lieutenant Governor shall be elected, and the time when he shall begin his term of office. The time fixed by the constitution for an election was still two years off when the pretended election took place. There was only one ground on which the validity of the election could be maintained, and that was that the failure of the constitution to provide how a vacancy should be filled gave the people, in their sovereign capacity, the right to decide the point for themselves, and that they had so decided it by meeting at the various polling places and casting their ballots for persons to fill such office.

As it was, the Republicans rested their case upon the fact that the Governor, by his proclamation, had ordered an election, on the advice of the Attorney General. For two years Indiana presented the anomaly of having one person recognized as Lieutenant Governor by the Senate and the Governor, and another person recognized by the House of Representatives and the administrative officers of the State. The Republican Senators, at the session of 1897, went back on the position held by the party in 1887, and sustained the contention of the Democrats of that year. On the first day of the session of 1897, while Mortimer Nye, the legal Lieutenant Governor, was present and presiding, the Republican Senators proposed to elect a President *pro tempore*. Mr. Nye cited the provision in the constitution and ruled that, as he was in the chair and able to preside, no election could take place. An appeal was taken from this ruling and was sustained by the Republican Senators. It is needless to say that the whole proceeding was clearly illegal.

CHAPTER XIV.

HISTORY OF SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

Although when the General Government accepted the Northwest Territory from Virginia, and the other States which laid claim to parts of it, provision was made for the education of the people, it was not until Indiana became a State of the Union that any definite steps were taken to establish a uniform system of education. At the close of the Revolutionary War there was not a school within the boundaries of what is now the State of Indiana. In fact, there were only two settlements at that time within those boundaries, one at Vincennes, and one at Ouiatenon, both on the Wabash. During the occupancy of this territory by the French no schools had been established, and while it was under British control no effort had been made to extend the settlements, or to establish schools at the two existing Posts. Following the occupation of the Territory by General George Rogers Clark the times were too exciting, and the dangers from hostile Indians were so great that little attention could be paid to the establishment of schools.

The introduction of schools, however, does not lag very far behind the settlement of any territory by Americans, and it was not long after the pioneers began to settle on the Ohio and the Whitewater, until the pedagogue appeared. The first teachers in Indiana were mainly from Ireland or Scotland, with a few from New England, and occasionally one from Virginia or Tennessee. The first school-houses were log cabins with puncheon floors and seats. Generally one end of the house was taken up by a fireplace,

where huge logs furnished warmth and smoke. The windows were small, consisting generally of four or six panes of glass about eight by ten inches in size. In these uncomfortable houses school was taught usually three or four months in the year. Text books were not to be had and the scholars took to school such books as the family might have brought with them from the older States. The New Testament was the approved book used for teaching reading. The course consisted of reading, writing, and arithmetic, with now and then a class in geography and grammar. The teacher was always provided with a good supply of switches, and a heavy ferule or two, with which he pounded learning into the scholars. The teacher was an autocrat, and his word was absolute law, both to parents and children.

All studying in the schools was accompanied by loud vocal noises from the scholars, until a school with twenty-five scholars resembled a modern political meeting, more than anything else. This method was deemed the only one by which students could be made to think for themselves. The idea was that studying and thinking amid such confusion and noise best fitted the student for business in after life. This custom prevailed in most of the schools until long after Indiana had become a State in the Union. The method of recitations followed very closely that of studying, and most of the lessons were recited in a monotonous, sing-song tone. One of the main requirements of a teacher was the ability to teach penmanship. In those days penmanship was a very laborious, tedious, and painful exercise. It was really pen-printing. The scholar was compelled to write very slowly and with the greatest precision. Spelling was another of the specialties in those days. Generally the classes stood around the room and "spelled for head." The last afternoon of each week was usually devoted to a spelling-bee. The school would divide and each side try to spell the other down. When schools became more numerous, and within easy distance of each other, it was a common thing for one school to challenge another to a spelling match, which would be attended by as many of the adults as could find the leisure. These were great occasions for the adults as well as for the children of the

whole country side, and were generally followed by a country dance or some other amusement common in those days.

In the early days no child was expected to read until he could spell well. He was generally required to go through the spelling book two or three times before attempting to read. Possibly if that system still prevailed, we should have better readers in our schools than we have. In those early schools rapidity in reading was a great thing, and he who could race through a reading lesson as a modern locomotive races over the iron track was considered the best reader. Poetry was generally read in a sing-song tone with a rising inflection on the last word or syllable of each line. Arithmetic was regarded as the most important, because it was the most practical. Commercial schools did not exist. Fractions were seldom taught, the teachers taking their classes only to the "Rule of Three." Every scholar was ambitious to be a good speller and good in figures, but the girls were hardly ever taught arithmetic beyond "Reduction."

Murray's Grammar was the standard work in this science; in fact, no other grammar was known in all this region. Few of the scholars ever took a course in grammar, but now and then one, more ambitious than the others, did so, and also made a dive into Latin. Most of the teachers, especially those from Ireland and Scotland, were good Latin scholars, and it delighted their hearts to find a studious youth who wanted to dip into the dead languages, and to such a one they would devote many extra hours, without thinking of compensation. To geography little attention was given, and that in a general way. It was not until 1825 that this branch was generally taught in the schools. Barnabas C. Hobbs, who for many years was one of Indiana's most distinguished educators, in speaking of the early teaching of geography, said:

"I can well remember when Morse's Geography came into the State. It was about the year 1825. It created a great sensation. It was a period in school history. Before this, but few had a clear idea of the earth's rotundity. Many could not understand the subject well enough to reason upon it. Many were emphatic and persistent in repudiating the absurd idea that the world is round, and turns

over. Debating clubs discussed the subject, and to the opposition it was perfectly clear that if the world turned over we would all fall off, and the water in the ocean would be spilled out. Morse's Geography cleared away the fog, and when Comstock's Philosophy, with its brief outlining of Astronomy, was introduced, the school boy could understand the subject well."

The amusements in those days were all of the out door character. "Bull pen" was a favorite game. Good dodging required the play of every muscle. Town ball, base ball and cat ball were also great favorites. Wrestling and jumping were indulged in to test the activity, muscle and endurance.

It was not until after the State had been organized for some time that any effort was made to test, in any way, the qualifications of those who sought to teach. The first examinations for teachers were placed in the hands of the Township Trustees, who were usually illiterate, and their examinations were often more of a farcical character than otherwise. Mr. Hobbs, before referred to, tells this amusing experience of his first examination for a teacher's certificate:

"The only question asked me at my first examination was, 'What is the product of 25 cents by 25 cents?' We had then no Teachers' Institutes, Normal Schools, nor 'best methods' by which nice matters were determined and precise definitions given. We were not as exact then as people are now. We had only Pike's Arithmetic, which gave the sums and the rules. These were considered enough at that day. How could I tell the product of 25 cents by 25 cents, when such a problem could not be found in the book? The examiner thought it was 6 1-4 cents, but was not sure. I thought just as he did, but this looked too small to both of us. We discussed its merits for an hour or more, when he decided that he was sure I was qualified to teach school, and a first-class certificate was given me. How others fared, I can not tell. I only know that teachers rarely taught twice in the same place." The first school teacher in Indiana was M. Rivet, a missionary who had been driven from France by the revolution. He opened a school at Vincennes in 1793.

The pioneer legislators of Indiana conceived an educational system to meet all the wants of the people. The common school was to be its base, and a State University its apex, with County Seminaries to fill the space between, and furnish a preparatory course for the University. But the scheme failed from two causes, one a lack of funds; the other a lack of competent teachers. On the 20th of May, 1785, Congress had passed an ordinance in relation to the mode of disposing of the public lands in the territory northwest of the Ohio River. This ordinance provided that one square mile of land, or section No. 16, in every township, should be reserved for the maintenance of public schools. The third article of compact in the Ordinance of 1787 declared that "religion, morality, and knowledge, being necessary to the government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged." It will be seen that the general government had not only declared in favor of this great theory of educating the masses, but had provided the States, to be carved out of this vast territory, with a foundation for a permanent school fund. During the Territorial existence of Indiana the Legislature several times discussed this question of public education, but little was done towards perfecting a system. Governor Harrison, in one of his messages, not only urged this upon the Legislature, but also urged the necessity of adopting as a part of the curriculum a military course.

In 1807 the Legislature passed an act to incorporate "the Vincennes University, for the instruction of youth in the Latin, Greek, French and English languages, mathematics, natural philosophy, ancient and modern history, moral philosophy, logic, rhetoric, and the laws of nature and nations." In the preamble to this act, the Legislature declared that the "Independence, happiness and energy of every republic depended (under the influence of the destinies of heaven) upon the wisdom, virtue, talents and energy of its citizens and rulers; and that science, literature, and the liberal arts contributed in an eminent degree to improve those qualities and requirements; and that learning had ever been found the ablest advocate of genuine liberty, the best supporter of rational religion, and the source

of the only solid and imperishable glory which nations can acquire." In 1808 the Legislature authorized the Judges of the Common Pleas Courts of the Territory to lease the school lands, and two years later the same Judges were authorized to appoint "Trustees" of the school lands, with power to lease, but they were forbidden to lease more than one hundred and sixty acres to any one person, and the destruction of timber trees on the leased lands was prohibited. This was about all that was done under the Territorial Government to advance the cause of education, but it must be remembered that the Territory was only just emerging from the terrors of the Indian wars which accompanied the last contest with Great Britain, and that settlers were but beginning to come into the Territory in any numbers.

The first constitution, adopted in 1816, had a very strong provision in favor of education. That instrument, in the ninth article, said:

"Knowledge and learning generally diffused through a community, being essential to the preservation of a free government, and spreading the opportunities and advantages of education through the various parts of the country, being highly conducive to this end, it shall be the duty of the General Assembly to provide by law, for the improvement of such lands as are, or hereafter may be granted by the United States, to this State for the use of schools, and to apply any funds which may be raised from such lands, or from any other quarter, to the accomplishment of the grand object for which they are or may be intended; but no lands granted for the use of schools or seminaries of learning shall be sold by the authority of the State prior to the year eighteen hundred and twenty; and the moneys which may be raised out of the sale of any such lands, or otherwise obtained for the purposes aforesaid, shall be and remain a fund for the exclusive purposes of promoting the interest of literature and the sciences, and for the support of seminaries and public schools. It shall be the duty of the General Assembly, as soon as circumstances will permit, to provide by law for a general system of education, ascending in a regular gradation from township schools to a State University, wherein tuition shall be gratis and equally open to all. And for the promotion of

such salutary end, the money which shall be paid as an equivalent by persons exempt from military duty, except in times of war, shall be exclusively, and in equal proportion, applied to the support of county seminaries; and all fines assessed for any breach of the penal laws shall be applied to said seminaries in the Counties wherein they shall be assessed."

Notwithstanding this ample provision in the constitution the cause of education advanced very slowly. There were many obstacles in the way. The settlements were small and widely scattered; there were no funds with which to erect school houses, and there was apathy on the part of some, and very decided hostility on the part of others. The cause of education, however, had many staunch friends, and they did not let the matter rest, but kept up the agitation from year to year. The General Assembly of 1816 made provision for the appointment of superintendents of school sections, with power to lease the school lands for any term not to exceed seven years. Each lessee of such lands was required to set out annually twenty-five apple and twenty-five peach trees until one hundred of each had been planted. Between the years 1816 and 1820 several academies, seminaries and literary societies were incorporated. In 1821, John Badollet, David Hart, William W. Martin, James Welsch, Daniel S. Caswell, Thomas C. Searle and John Todd were appointed by the General Assembly a commission, to draft and report to the next Legislature a bill providing for a general system of education; and they were instructed to guard particularly against "any distinction between the rich and poor." The commission set about their work conscientiously, and when it was completed submitted it to Benjamin Parke, who had been at one time a delegate to Congress, and was then the United States Judge for Indiana. The bill so reported was enacted into a law, and became the first general law on the subject of education passed by the Indiana General Assembly. It was passed in 1824, and bore the title: "An Act to incorporate congressional townships and providing for public schools therein."

After providing for the election by the people of each congressional township, of three persons to act as school

trustees, to whom the control of the school lands and schools generally was to be given, the law made the following provision for building school houses: "Every able-bodied male person of the age of twenty-one years and upwards residing within the bounds of such school district, shall be liable to work one day in each week until such building may be completed, or pay the sum of thirty-seven and one-half cents for every day he may fail to work." The same act described a school house as follows: "In all cases such school house shall be eight feet between the floors, and at least one foot from the surface of the ground to the first floor, and be furnished in a manner calculated to render comfortable the teacher and pupils." The trustees were required to receive lumber, nails, glass, or other necessary materials at the current prices, in lieu of work. No funds were provided for the pay of teachers, so the schools were not free, but they were made open to all, black as well as white. It was not until about 1830 that colored children were excluded from the schools, and then the exclusion arose from a prejudice excited by the slavery agitation. Under the law of 1824 the schools were kept open just as long each year as the patrons could or would pay for their maintenance.

At nearly every succeeding session of the General Assembly some law was enacted on the subject of education, but still no general system was adopted. There was always an opposition that would find some way to get the laws before the courts, and thus hamper the attempts to establish schools. Private citizens did much for the cause, however, and public meetings of citizens did more, but little could be accomplished in a public way. School officers had no funds with which to erect houses, or to pay teachers. They could not levy a tax, except by special permission of the district, and even then the expenditure was limited to \$50 by the act of 1834. The friends of public schools worked on and hoped on, striving to overcome every obstacle and put down all opposition. At last their day of triumph came, but even in their triumph they came near being defeated, and their noble efforts were for some years neutralized by the stupidity of a Supreme Court. The friends of education planned and worked until at last they

found a way to provide for one of the most magnificent public school funds in the Union. It has already been noted that the General Government gave to the State the sixteenth section in every township, for school purposes. This was made the beginning of the grand school fund to be built up the State. The present school fund has accumulated from the following sources:

- 1.—The Congressional Township Fund.
- 2.—The Bank Tax Fund.
- 3.—The Sinking Fund.
- 4.—The Surplus Revenue Fund.
- 5.—The Saline Fund.
- 6.—The Swamp Land Fund.
- 7.—The Seminary Fund.
- 8.—The Contingent Fund.

The Congressional Township Fund was raised from the sale of the land given by the General Government. The Bank Tax Fund was created by a provision in the charter of the State Bank of Indiana, which provided that the bank should deduct from the annual dividends the sum of twelve and a half cents for each share of the stock of the bank, except the shares owned by the State, to constitute a part of a permanent school fund. This fund was to be kept in the bank and allowed to accumulate until it was appropriated by the Legislature. During the life of the bank this tax produced \$80,000. By the charter of the bank, the State was to own one-half the stock. To pay for this stock the State was permitted to borrow \$1,300,000, for a period of twenty years, at five per cent. interest. Of this sum \$800,000 was to be used to pay for the State's stock, and the remaining \$500,000 was to be loaned by the State to individuals, for long terms, at six per cent. interest. It was provided that the interest on these loans to individuals, together with the principal, when paid, with all dividends on the shares held by the State, should be left to accumulate and go, first to repay the loan of \$1,300,000, and the residue to form a permanent school fund. This proved a fortunate speculation on the part of the State, as its share, after all expenses were paid, amounted to about three and a half million dollars. It is to John Beard, mem-

ber of the General Assembly in 1834, from Montgomery County, the State owes the existence of this fund.

In 1836 the National Treasury had a very large surplus, and as there was no national debt to which it could be applied, Congress concluded to divide a large part of the surplus among the various States of the Union, according to population. The share of Indiana amounted to \$806,254. The Legislature of 1837 set apart \$573,502.96 of this sum for the use of the common schools, and made it a part of the permanent fund. This is known as the "Surplus Revenue Fund." By the second section of article eight of the constitution it is provided that all lands that have been, or may be, granted to the State, when no special purpose is designated in the grant, and the proceeds of the sales thereof, including the swamp lands which have been granted, shall become a part of the permanent school fund. This is known as the "Swamp Land Fund." In 1816 Congress gave to the State all salt springs within its boundaries, together with the lands reserved for the use of the same, not to exceed thirty-six entire sections, and in 1832 authorized the State to sell such springs and lands and apply the proceeds to the common school fund. This was the origin of the Saline fund, and has yielded about \$85,000.

In 1852 the Legislature ordered the sale of all County Seminaries, with all their property, real and personal, and provided that the net proceeds should be added to the permanent school fund. The contingent fund arises from fines, forfeitures and escheats. It is proper to state, in this connection, that under the law authorizing County Seminaries, one or two such institutions grew up to be quite famous as institutions of learning, and in them were educated some of the men who afterward became leading figures in the history of the State. Perhaps the two which were the most prosperous were those in Marion and Washington Counties. That in Washington County was for twenty years or more under the direction of John I. Morrison, one of the most distinguished and successful educators the State has ever had. That in Marion County was not so long under the direction of any one person, but it became a noted seat of learning.

The dawn of our present common school system began

in 1852. The people had reached the conclusion that the constitution of 1816 was not broad enough in some respects for the needs of the growing State, and a convention was called to remodel that instrument. The new constitution provided for the establishment of a general and uniform system of common schools wherein tuition should be without charge, and equally open to all. This provision was submitted to a popular vote and was ratified by a majority of more than eighty thousand. To the Hon. Caleb Mills the credit is due for this provision. He had issued several addresses to the Legislature on this subject, and had aroused public interest in it. Previous to that time the school officers were dependent upon the uncertain popular vote of a district, township or city for instruction concerning the sale or lease of school lands, the loaning of money, the building of school houses and the employment of teachers. This loose system had not worked well. In some places the people were liberal and the schools were treated accordingly, while in others an illiberal spirit prevailed. The first Legislature under the new constitution sought to do away with all this, and perfect a system whereby all sections of the State should be treated in a more uniform manner.

The school law of 1852 was exceedingly liberal and embodied principles and practical excellencies that, had it not been overthrown, would have soon put our school system abreast, if not ahead, of that of any of the other States. The law embodied the principle that the property of the State should educate the children of the State, and that all the common schools should be open to pupils without charge. The first section of the act provided for levying and collecting a property tax of ten cents on each one hundred dollars' worth of property. The second section provided for the consolidation and general management by the State of all the permanent school funds. The law abolished the Congressional township system, declared each civil township a township for school purposes, and gave the Township Trustee full charge of the educational affairs of the Township. He was empowered to build school houses, establish graded schools, and employ teachers, as circumstances might seem to require. The law provided for the

better investment of the school funds, and made the Counties responsible for the payment of the annual interest thereon. It provided for the election of a State Superintendent of Public Instruction and the establishment of a State Board of Education, and specified the duties and powers of the Superintendent and Board of Education.

The State Superintendent is a constitutional officer, and is elected by the people for a term of two years. His duties are varied and arduous, and his office one of the greatest importance to the school system. He is charged with the administration of the system of instruction and with a general supervision of the schools, and of the funds for their use. It is his duty to render an opinion in writing to any school officer in regard to the administration or construction of the school laws, and he is required to visit every County in the State at least once every two years. He examines into the management of the school funds of the Counties, and as to how they are collected and disbursed. He also hears and determines appeals in certain cases from the County Superintendent. In short, upon him hinges, in a great measure, the perfection of the whole system.

The law also provided for the purchase of township libraries and levied a small tax for that purpose. It declared incorporated cities and towns to be school corporations, independent of the Townships in which they are situated, and empowered them to appoint independent school trustees, with authority to establish graded schools, and to levy taxes for their support after the school fund should be exhausted. They were also authorized to build school houses and furnish them. Another important section was one enabling the citizens of a Township to make extra provisions for the support of schools. It read as follows:

"The voters of any township shall have power at any general or special meeting to vote a tax for the purpose of building or repairing school houses, and purchasing sites therefor, providing fuel, furniture, maps, apparatus, libraries, or increase thereof, or to discharge debts incurred therefor, and for continuing their schools, after the public funds shall have been expended, to any amount not to exceed fifty cents on each one hundred dollars of property, and fifty cents on each poll."

The two sections referred to were broad and liberal, and were intended to permit the people to supplement the general fund, as they might feel disposed to do. The general fund at that time was not as large as at present, and at the best would only suffice to keep the schools open a short time each year. Having declared that education was to be the future safety of the State and Nation, and established the principle of free instruction, it was judicious to give the people the right to tax themselves, as they might deem proper, to carry on this great educational system. The cities especially felt the need of a system of graded schools. Populous towns would prove dangerous unless the children could be educated, and as there were always many who could not afford to send their children to private schools, this tax provision was especially wise as to them. Under it the school system at once felt a great impetus and comfortable school houses were soon erected in many of the cities, and graded schools established. The State took one great leap forward in the race of progress. The enthusiasm spread to many of the country districts, and it was soon noticed that a marked improvement in the character of the schools, both as to the qualifications of the teachers and the length of the school terms, had taken place.

The State had entered upon a new era, and gave promise of soon having a public school system that would be the pride of all, and would reflect great credit upon the people. But every community must, of necessity, it seems, be afflicted with people who oppose all progress. Those who drafted the constitution of 1850 no doubt meant wisely, but they were not always happy in finding the right words to convey their meaning, and they let slip into the constitution a clause that has been productive of untold litigation, and of vexation to all legislatures. In declaring the powers of the Legislature the constitution provides that all laws shall be general and of uniform operation throughout the State. That poor, unexplained word, "uniform," has been made to cover many an attack upon laws that were good and wholesome. So it was with the school law of 1852. Taxpayers were found who objected to being taxed to educate the children of the State, and two suits were

brought to overthrow the law on the plea that it was not of "uniform operation" throughout the State; that it gave to incorporated cities and towns rights and powers not given to the country districts, and that even in the country districts there was not uniformity, for one district might levy a tax and another not, or one might levy a tax of twenty-five cents and another one of fifty cents, or that through this tax one district might keep open its school for four months, while another that did not tax would only have two months.

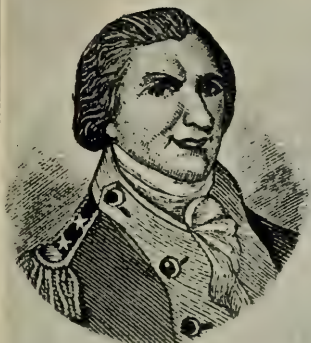
Strange to say, a Court was found to uphold these objections. The Court could not distinguish between "uniform operation," and uniform execution. The operation of the law was uniform, for it gave to all the same rights, and it left all equally free to exercise the rights thus given, or to let them sleep, as they saw fit. Its application by the people was not uniform, and with that the constitution had nothing to do. The law gave all the children the opportunity to learn, and the Court might as well have declared that the law was unconstitutional, because all the children did not, or could not, learn in a uniform degree. The Court overthrew the law, and by its action greatly retarded the growth and prosperity of the State, for more than a decade. It went through all the land that the people of Indiana were opposed to education, notwithstanding they had voted for free schools by a majority of more than eighty thousand. The decisions of the Courts were a death blow to the graded schools. They had been started in many of the cities, but for the want of funds had to be discontinued, and all the schools of the State were again made dependent solely upon the general fund, and when that was exhausted they were compelled to close.

The friends of popular education were disheartened for a while, but they soon rallied and began to devise means to overcome the objections to a common school system. They contemplated for some time making an effort to change the constitutional provision which had been declared to stand in the way, but the war, with all its excitement and horrors, came, and the attention of the people was for the time called away from everything else to the duty of saving the Union. It was not until 1865 that a new law was enacted.

When it went into operation no one was found with temerity enough to attack it before the Courts, and although the decision of 1858 has never formally been overruled, it has been so practically. Into the law of 1865 some new features were introduced, one of the most important being the establishment of Teachers' Institutes. These Institutes have been a great power for good, and have accomplished a great work in raising the character of the schools. They have not only improved the standard of the teachers, but have stimulated a thirst for knowledge among the children, and have made the schools more popular than ever before. In fact, they have been the nerve, the very marrow of our school system.

The law of 1865 has been supplemented by others, each calculated to perfect the system and to widen its scope. The power of taxation has been increased, and trustees have been authorized to issue bonds to procure funds for the erection of new and more commodious buildings. The education of the colored children was also provided for in 1869. As already stated, up to 1830 the colored children were entitled to admission to the public schools on an equality with the whites; in fact, the constitution of 1816 provided that the common schools should be open to all. About 1830, however, a prejudice arose against the colored people, growing out of the slavery controversy, and it found its way into the legislation of the State, and into the schools, and colored children were barred from participation in what was the common right of all, until after slavery was destroyed, and the colored man became a citizen. Then once more he could send his children to the public schools.

Space will not permit giving in anything like detail the various laws which have been enacted from time to time for the betterment of the school system, nor, in fact, to mention them, and we will have to confine our remarks to those points in the laws which have been the most potent for good. Going hand in hand with the Teachers' Institutes in the work of improving our school system, and in raising the standard of education in Indiana, has been the establishment of the office of County Superintendent, and the organization of County Boards of Education. The leg-



ARTHUR ST. CLAIR.



THOMAS POSEY.



WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.



JONATHAN JENNINGS.



RATLIFF BOON.

improvement stop there. By frequent consultations between the County Superintendents and the State Superintendent, there developed, almost imperceptibly, a large degree of uniformity among the schools of the State. In this great work the County Boards of Education had much to do. The County Board is composed of the County Superintendent, the Township Trustees and the School Trustees of the cities or towns in the County. The system of county superintendency did not meet with complete favor at first, and several efforts were made to abolish it, but all were thwarted, and now the superintendents are so rooted and grounded into the school system as to be immovable.

Another step forward was the law of 1889, providing for a uniform system of text books to be adopted by the State Board of Education. Before that law was enacted the text book question was a very vexatious one, to parents especially. The books they purchased one year might not be good the next, and the books their children used in attending school in one township might be useless to them on moving into another. The buying of books was a heavy burden on parents, and many efforts were made to find a solution of the difficulty. Finally the Legislature put the whole matter in the hands of the State Board of Education, and the text books for the entire State were required to be advertised for, and the price to purchasers was fixed by law. This has been a great improvement on the old system, and has secured a uniformity in the books used, but the law still has some lame places. It does not give latitude enough to enable the Board to always secure the best text books, and the best is none too good for a school system as great as that of Indiana.

The scarcity of well-trained teachers was early felt as a drawback to perfecting the school system, and the friends of popular education began to agitate the establishment of a Normal School for the training of teachers. We had schools to train lawyers, doctors, dentists, and preachers; why not one to train teachers? Teaching is as difficult a science as either of the others, but from some cause an idea had grown up that anybody could teach school, just as anybody could keep hotel. It was a mistaken idea, and one that had caused a good deal of trouble in the schools,

and in many places had enabled wholly unfit persons to get employment as teachers. The revival of the interest in popular education which followed closely on the end of the war brought with it an effort to have the State establish a Normal School. In 1865, among other commendable acts of the General Assembly, was one to establish such a school. The friends of education had been striving for this end for ten years or more, and they were entitled to all credit for the victory they won.

The law provided that the school should be located in the city that would contribute most liberally toward its establishment. Terre Haute offered \$50,000 in cash and \$25,000 in land. There was no other offer, and the school was located at that enterprising city. Suitable buildings were erected and the school was opened in January, 1870. This is the only school the State has of the kind, but there are several others maintained by private individuals.

Our present school system may be said to be the growth of the last thirty-five years. It is true that the constitution of 1816 made provisions for the establishment of a public school system, and that laws to carry those provisions into effect were enacted from time to time, but prior to the constitution of 1850 there were few common schools, and they were scattered over the State. They were mainly dependent upon voluntary local enterprise, and in no sense formed a State system. The people were permitted to open and maintain schools, but they were not compelled to do so. No State tax was levied, nor were the schools put under the supervision of special officers. The framers of the new constitution were well convinced that a system of popular education was calculated to aid in the perpetuity of free institutions, and provided that the Legislature should take steps for the establishment of such a system.

A large school fund had been created and made productive, and public sentiment was in favor of the establishment of a high grade system. As has been stated in another part of this chapter, the Legislature promptly acted so as to carry out the provisions of the constitution, but its efforts were thwarted by the adverse decision of the Supreme Court, and for several years the whole system was deranged, and but little good accomplished. It was not,

therefore, until 1865 that our present system was fairly started. Since then thousands of school houses have been erected, every modern appliance obtained, and teachers of the highest grade have been employed, until now the Indiana school system ranks among the foremost in the land. It may be that it has not yet reached the highest level of excellence attainable, but it is pointed that way. A public school system is not calculated to produce profound scholars, its aim being to give every one a sufficiently practical education to enable him to enter upon the business of life fairly well equipped.

There is one branch of a real popular educational system that has only lately been attracting attention, and that is manual labor training. Indianapolis and Fort Wayne have already made a start in this direction, and it is to be hoped the other cities of the State will speedily follow this example. One of America's drawbacks has been the absence of educated labor. No reason can be advanced for a State training lawyers and doctors that cannot be much more forcibly applied to teaching other vocations. Especially is this true in regard to girls who are to be the future home-makers of the State.

In looking to the future, and making provision for common schools, the early founders of Indiana did not intend to stop at the graded school, but contemplated as well a system of higher education. Colleges and Universities were embraced in their project, and no doubt they looked forward to a time when Indiana should have a great State University, which would take its place alongside of those of the older East. That their hopes have not altogether been realized has been no fault of theirs, but rather of circumstances, and of the later generations not following closely in their footsteps. Congress also looked to this end, and in 1804 granted the Territory a township of land for the establishment of a seminary of learning. On October 10, 1806, Albert Gallatin, the great financier, who was then Secretary of the Treasury, selected the township to be given to Indiana, locating it in Gibson County. It contained 23,040 acres. In September, 1807, the Territorial Legislature chartered the University, locating it at Vincennes, and gave to it the lands in Gibson County.

In December, 1807, the Board of Trustees organized, with General William Henry Harrison as President. He continued at the head of the board until 1811. About 4,000 acres of the land was sold by order of the Legislature, and a brick building was erected at Vincennes. A grammar school was started, in which the study of the languages was provided for. It had a hard struggle for existence, as the funds were all used in putting up the building, and the school had to depend upon tuition fees for its maintenance. The Rev. Samuel T. Scott was the first President, and he filled that office until 1823, when Henry M. Shaw took the position. Soon after this the University suspended operations for lack of funds. The University Board held no meeting from 1823 until 1828, but in 1828 the County of Knox established the Knox County Seminary in the building belonging to the University. In 1838 there was a reorganization of the University Board, with Thomas Alexander as President. The old building and grounds were sold to the Catholic Church for a small sum. In 1840 the new Board of Trustees re-opened the institution, electing the Rev. B. B. Killikelly President. About the time the University suspended operations, the State sold the remaining land in Gibson County and applied the proceeds to the State University at Bloomington.

This was the cause of an immense amount of litigation, the friends of the Vincennes institution claiming that the lands had all been given to that University. In 1844 a large number of suits were brought by the University against the purchasers of the Gibson County lands, but before a decision was reached the Legislature assumed the burden, and, by an act passed in 1846, authorized the University to bring suit in the Marion Circuit Court against the State. This suit was fought for eight years, and in 1854 was finally decided in favor of the University by the Supreme Court of the United States. But this did not end the trouble of the University. The Legislature authorized an issue of bonds, to the amount of \$66,585, in favor of the University. Samuel Judah had been the attorney for the University, and retained \$25,000 of the amount as his fee. The Board brought suit against Mr. Judah to recover a part of this amount, claiming that the fee was excessive, and this suit

also hung fire for some time, but was ultimately decided against the University.

Among other privileges granted to the University was one to operate a lottery, and this provision also furnished its share of litigation. Since the determination of the Judah suit the institution has had a precarious existence, its fund being too small for any material enlargement of its field. About 1874 Congress gave to the University all the unclaimed and vacant lands in Knox County. This gift proved of material benefit, but still the institution has not received enough from the public to realize the high hopes of its founders. In the original charter it was provided that Indians should be maintained, clothed and educated free. But no Indians ever took advantage of this provision. The Departments of Law, Divinity and Medicine have never been opened.

In 1816 Congress again came to the help of the new commonwealth in matters of education, and gave to the State another township of land for the establishment of a seminary of learning. This township was located in Monroe County. In 1820 the Legislature appointed a Board of Trustees for the seminary with authority to select a site. They located the new institution at Bloomington, and this became the parent of the present Indiana University. It was not until 1825 that a building was ready for the use of the new seminary, and its opening was not very promising for the future. In that year the Rev. Raynard R. Hall took charge of the seminary and opened the school. His salary was fixed at \$150 per annum. Two years later his salary was raised to \$400 a year, and he was given an assistant at \$300 per year. The next year, however, the Legislature raised the seminary to the dignity of a college, and the distinguished educator, the Rev. Andrew Wylie, was made President, a position he held until his death in 1851.

In 1838 the college was chartered as a University and its field greatly enlarged, but the Legislature was still very economical in supplying funds for its proper maintenance. It was just beginning to build up, and get a fair start in the world, with a small but valuable library, when the main building was destroyed by fire. The State with commend-

able generosity stepped forward to the relief of the institution, and Congress gave it another grant of land. Since then the State has been more liberal than before, but still the institution has not been granted means enough to become the great University Indiana ought to have. In 1840 a law school was organized, and a flourishing medical school situated at Indianapolis is connected with the University. Many distinguished men have been educated at the State University, and it ranks high in its scholarship, and is worthy of all the State will give it.

The State has another college or university under its control—Purdue University at Lafayette. This is the youngest of the State institutions, but it is also one of the most vigorous, and has a bright future before it. In 1862 Congress gave to the State script calling for 390,000 acres of land, to be used for the endowment of a college for instruction in agricultural and mechanical arts. The State sold the script, realizing \$212,238, which was invested in Government bonds. In 1869 John Purdue, of Lafayette, offered to give the State \$150,000 for such an institution, and the County of Tippecanoe offered \$50,000 to have it located in that County, and the people of the little village of Chauncey gave one hundred acres of land for a site. Since then the State has appropriated large sums to this purpose, and handsome and commodious buildings have been erected.

The school was formally opened on September 17, 1874. The schools of the University are: 1.—School of Natural Sciences; 2.—School of Engineering; 3.—School of Agriculture. In these schools there are regular courses in Agriculture and Horticulture, Civil Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Mining Engineering, Industrial Design, Natural History and Chemistry. The law gives each County in the State the right to send two students to the University under special privileges. They are entitled to enter, remain, and receive instructions under the same conditions, qualifications and regulations as other students, but they are not chargeable for room, light, heat, water, tuition, janitor or matriculation fees. These students also have special privileges in the selection of rooms, as in the order of their

admittance they can select for their occupancy any room that may be vacant.

The State has other institutions for education, such as those for the deaf and dumb, and blind, at Indianapolis, and the reform school at Plainfield, but they are treated at length under the head of benevolent institutions.

The Legislature of 1897 took a long step in advance. As the State increased in population, the number of parents who would not give to their children the advantages offered by the public for getting a foundation for an education, increased, and it became necessary for some action to be taken to prevent the growth of illiteracy and idleness, so a law was passed, providing that every parent or guardian of a child between the ages of eight and fourteen years shall send the child to a public, private or parochial school for at least twelve consecutive weeks in each school year. Children who have attended school eight years are exempt from this compulsory attendance. Truant officers are appointed in each County, to carry out the provisions of the act. When the parent is unable to supply the child with the proper books, or adequate clothing, they are supplied at public expense. For incorrigible children, who habitually absent themselves from school, "Parental Homes" are maintained.

Other great advances in the system are now being agitated. In the Townships the need of "Supervising Principals" is felt. The district schools have been advancing from year to year, and the good work of supervising principals in the cities has been so manifest that the Townships are desirous of taking this step in advance, and having an officer whose duty it shall be to watch more directly over the schools, helping and encouraging the weak teacher, and bringing forth a greater harmony of effort. The question of establishing Township High Schools is also agitated. As the State grows, and the desire for knowledge increases, the demand grows for schools in the country districts, wherein several of the higher branches may be pursued, and it will not be long before a high school will be established in every Township.

The State has not been alone in its work for the advancement of higher education. The various church de-

nominations have been very active, and several of them now have very creditable institutions of learning. The first to enter this field were the Presbyterians. This denomination early felt the need of an institution for educating its ministry, the East not being able to supply the demand for this rapidly growing section of the great West, and in 1825 it was determined to establish a college, primarily for this purpose. The Presbytery of Salem, which then embraced Indiana and Illinois, appointed a committee to select a site and take the necessary steps to organize an academy. Hanover Church, Jefferson County, Indiana, was then the center of Presbyterian influence in this section of the country. The membership was mostly of Scotch-Irish parentage. This modest little church stood on a high and beautiful bluff facing the Ohio River, six miles below the town of Madison. The church had been built out of stone taken from the hill side. It had been named "Hanover" out of compliment to the wife of the first pastor, she having been a native of Hanover, N. H. There was no town, no village; it was simply a church for the neighboring farmers and their families. All north of this little settlement, clear to the lakes, was an almost unbroken wilderness. The Indians still roamed over a great part of the territory. The capital of the State had just been removed to Indianapolis, then a straggling village of only a few hundred souls.

The Rev. John Finley Crowe was pastor of this little church. The people were poor, and the preachers were poor, but they were rich in faith, and strong in the belief that Indiana would, at no distant day, be a great State. Full of that faith the Kentucky Synod, to which the Salem Presbytery was attached, asked the pastor of Hanover Church to open and conduct an "academy" until further provision could be made. On the 1st day of January, 1827, in a log cabin, the school was opened with six pupils. Such was the humble beginning of Hanover College, and the great McCormick Theological Seminary of Chicago. Just before the school was opened the Synod of Indiana was constituted, and the infant school was placed under the direct management of the Madison Presbytery.

A charter was asked from the Legislature and granted, but the legislators were evidently afraid that such institu-

tions might become monopolies, so it was provided that the college should never own more than 160 acres of land. At that time land in that section of the State was worth about three dollars an acre. In 1829 a theological department was added, and the school was adopted by the Indiana Synod. The theological department in 1840 was removed to New Albany, and afterward to Chicago, where it became the great McCormick Theological Institute, so richly endowed by the late Cyrus H. McCormick, inventor of the reaper. Upon the adoption of the school by the Synod, new buildings were erected on grounds donated by the late Williamson Dunn. The people of Madison, Hanover, and the surrounding country provided the building. It is said that one gentleman was very anxious to give something to the good cause, and having no money, gave his horse. This shows the spirit of the men of those times.

In 1834 the institution was chartered as a college by the Legislature, the charter providing, among other things, that those students who were physically qualified, should be exercised and instructed in some kind of mechanical and agricultural science. Under this provision students cut cordwood, split rails, plowed fields and worked in a printing office, in a cooper shop and at a carpenter's bench. The manual labor department failed, however, and left the college burdened with debt. But Hanover had won an honorable name for itself as an educational institution, and it had a large list of students. The debt was a heavy burden, and while its friends were struggling to lift this load, a storm destroyed the college edifice. So strong was the force of the wind that books and pieces of furniture were carried across the Ohio River and scattered over the hills of Kentucky. The charter was surrendered and a receiver appointed by the Legislature. What property was left was sold for \$400. It was purchased by Williamson Dunn, who, when a new charter was granted, again gave it to the college. The college is now enjoying a very enviable prosperity and is one of the State's most honored institutions.

Maintaining and building up Hanover has not been the only work of the Indiana Presbyterians in the cause of education. Some six years after the opening of the Hanover school in the log cabin on the Ohio, five Presbyterian home

missionaries met at the little village of Crawfordsville, in Montgomery County. Talking over the needs of the church, and of the people of this fast growing commonwealth, they determined to found an institution especially for training teachers for the common schools. Williamson Dunn, who gave the land on which Hanover College was built, was present, and offered to give land for this school also. The offer was accepted, and after adopting a few by-laws, and appointing a Board of Trustees, the little company went out to view the land that had been given them, and select a site for a building. Making a selection of the spot, they all knelt down in the snow, and by prayer dedicated the ground to liberty and to God. The founders of this institution evidently believed there was something in a name, for they adopted one for their poor infant which was startling in its weight and length. It was called "The Wabash Manual Labor College and Teachers' Seminary." The name hampered the infant, but did not quite kill it. It appears that even in those early days the subject of manual labor was attracting attention. It was a great misfortune that it was ever lost sight of as a part of our educational system.

The people of Crawfordsville did not take kindly to the institution, and gave but little material help to it. On the 3d of December, 1833, after the building had been completed, the school was formally opened, under the charge of Prof. Caleb Mills, with an attendance of twelve students. It was a small beginning, but it was a beginning, and its friends were so much encouraged that the next year they applied to the Legislature for a charter, and, strange to say, this was opposed by some of the people of Crawfordsville. The charter was finally obtained, but it was a very illiberal one, and it took twenty years of persistent work to get it amended. Finally, through the good offices of the late Robert Dale Owen, the incubus of the old charter was taken off, and an era of prosperity began to dawn. While the institution was struggling with its first charter it had other dark waters to pass through. It was in debt, and no one would give it any money. The Rev. Edmund O. Hovey, one of its founders, went East to solicit aid, but it was all in vain for some months, and in despair he looked about for some church in want of a pastor, where he could preach

until he could earn money enough to return to Indiana, having exhausted all his own means.

About this time he was invited to preach, one Sunday at Amesbury, Mass. He did so, and there presented the cause of his little school, and with such force that a small sum was raised then and there. This was a rift in the clouds, and in a few months he raised about \$1500. He did more than this, he enlisted the Rev. Elihu W. Baldwin in the cause, and got his promise to accept the Presidency. Mr. Baldwin secured pledges amounting to about \$25,000. He came to Indiana and assumed charge of the school, and it was determined to erect new and larger buildings. This was done, but again the institution was burdened with a heavy debt. The first class was graduated in 1838, consisting of two students, one from Indiana and one from New York. Hope was budding in the breasts of its friends when, in September, 1838, the new building, with all it contained, was destroyed by fire. This was a terrible blow, but the plucky trustees at once began to make arrangements for a new structure. They borrowed the money and again put up a building. For forty years the college struggled along, burdened with debt and meeting one discouragement after another, but its way was steadily onward and upward, and prosperity came at last. It now has an endowment of more than half a million dollars.

The Baptists were not far behind the Presbyterians in having their attention turned to higher education. As early as 1832 they declared one of the needs to be schools of a higher grade than were then common, and they determined to open such a school. The little town of Franklin, Johnson County, offered to give eight acres of land as a site for such a school. It was not a large donation, especially as the land at that time was worth only ten or fifteen dollars an acre, but it was a start. It was not until 1835 that a building was erected, and the school was opened in June of that year. It was called the "Indiana Baptist Manual Labor School." The building was a modest little frame structure, costing about three hundred dollars. Two teachers were employed, and the school launched on an uncertain sea. The managers purchased eighty acres of land adjoining the college site, hoping that by a re-sale of the

land enough could be realized to pay for the erection of more permanent buildings. But the speculation proved an unfortunate one. As an evidence of how poor the college was in material wealth, it is told that the trustees purchased a bell, and not having the money to pay for the erection of a bell-tower, the bell was hung in the forks of a tree, where it remained for several years.

In 1843 it was determined to make an effort to erect a new and larger building, and the eighty-acre tract of land was sold for a lot of brick. Many of the friends of the institution who were desirous of giving something had no money, so they gave wares and merchandise, which were sold over the State by agents of the school. Among other things thus given were a number of clocks, and it was contemplated to dispose of them by peddling them, but the laws of the State at that time were very severe on clock peddlers, so the scheme had to be abandoned. In 1844 a new charter was obtained, and the school took the name of "Franklin College." The first graduate took his degree in 1847 and he was thirty-five years old. Three times in its history the college has been compelled to suspend operations—twice for want of funds, and once on account of a lack of students, occasioned by the war. Once the entire institution came near being sold out on an execution for debt, but the disaster was happily averted.

Amid seasons of hope and despondency the college struggled along until 1872, when it finally succumbed. Paradoxical as this may appear, this was the dawn of a better day for the institution. On the death of the old organization the "Franklin College Association" was born, and prosperous days at once came to the college. Twice before had the generous citizens of Franklin gone to the rescue of the institution, but this time they determined to take its control into their own hands, and the result has proved that it was a wise conclusion. The new association assumed the debts of the old, and secured a title to the buildings and grounds at a foreclosure sale. The institution now has assets amounting to considerably more than \$300,000, and they are steadily increasing. The college has eight distinct departments, not including music and painting,

which are separate. Young ladies are received in the same course of studies and hours as the young men. Franklin College is in every way a credit to Indiana.

In 1835 the Methodists determined to proceed at once to the work of founding their college. Several towns presented bids for its location, that of Greencastle being finally accepted. A charter was asked for and was finally granted by the Legislature, but only after a determined and prolonged fight. It is said that the Senate was equally divided on the question, but one of the most bitter opponents of the charter was addicted to strong drink, and was often absent from his seat as a consequence. The friends of the college watched their opportunity, and one day, while he was out, called the bill up and scored a victory. It was on the 10th of January, 1837, that the charter was finally granted to Asbury University.

On the 20th of June, of that year, the corner stone of the new college was laid in the presence of twenty thousand people. The new building was not occupied until 1840. This building remained until February 10, 1879, when it was nearly destroyed by fire. This fire was a very disastrous one to the college, as it destroyed a large number of very valuable historical relics. The opening of the college was not deferred, however, until the building was completed, but the county seminary was leased and the school began. The first class consisted of only five young men, all residents of Greencastle. It is said that all five of the boys attended barefooted and coatless. By 1839 enough students had put in an appearance to warrant the election of a President, and the choice fell on Matthew Simpson, who afterwards became so distinguished as a Bishop of the Methodist church. In 1843 the trustees made an arrangement with the Secretary of War to educate ten boys of the Choctaw Indians. The experiment was practically a failure, but it was the first effort of the Government to solve the Indian problem by education.

In 1846 a law department was added, and in 1848 a medical department was opened at Indianapolis, but both were permitted to languish and die for want of funds. During all those years, while the trustees were ambitiously stretching out, adding new departments and increasing the

number of professors, they were struggling with that worst of all diseases—impecuniosity—and the institution had many ups and downs in consequence. The number of students grew much faster than did the permanent endowment fund, and thereby kept the institution heavily in debt. Since 1875 the University has received several large gifts, the largest being that of the late Washington C. DePauw. He not only richly endowed the college by direct gifts, but also added largely to its fund through his will. The institution now has more than fifty professors and teachers, and annually enrolls about one thousand students. The law and medical departments have been revived and are now in a flourishing condition. Owing to the great liberality of Mr. DePauw, the trustees changed the name of the institution from "The Asbury University" to "The DePauw University."

The Methodists have two other schools in the State, a college at Moore's Hill, Dearborn County, and a Female Academy at New Albany. Both are very flourishing institutions and are practically feeders for the great University at Greencastle.

In 1852 the members of the Christian church took steps to establish and endow a college. Stock to the amount of about \$75,000 in \$100 shares was subscribed, and Mr. Ovid Butler gave a beautiful grove in Indianapolis for a site. On this site a handsome building was at once erected, and the college was opened in 1855. It was one of the first colleges in the West to open its doors to females on the same footing with male students. It was called the "Northwestern Christian University." It flourished for several years in its new home, when the friends and trustees of the institution deemed it wise to remove it to a greater distance from the city, and it was taken to Irvington, and with its removal its name was changed to "Butler University," after its founder and great friend, Mr. Ovid Butler. It now has property and an endowment amounting to about \$250,000.

The Friends have not been behind the other Christian denominations in advancing the cause of education. They were, indeed, among the first to feel the need of schools of the higher order. As early as 1821 they had evolved a system of schools in which moral training was a prime factor.

They began the work of soliciting subscriptions to put this elaborate system in full operation, but subscriptions were not as large as the designs of the Friends, and the raising of funds, proceeded slowly. By 1834 seventy of the schools were in operation in different parts of the country. In 1832 the Friends began agitating for a school of a higher grade. A committee was appointed to solicit the funds, but the financial panic which came soon afterward proved a drag, and it took five years to make a beginning, and it was not until ten years later the school was opened. One hundred and twenty acres of ground was obtained, about one mile from the city of Richmond, and the school opened with fair prospects. The average attendance the first year was fifty-three. The school year was divided into two sessions of twenty-three weeks each. In 1859 this institution took the name of Earlham College.

Like all similar institutions, Earlham has had its ups and downs, but from the very first it has held an enviable position on account of the thoroughness of its course of education, and the fine moral atmosphere surrounding it. It has graduated a large list of men who have become prominent in many spheres of life. Its growth during the last few years has been very great, and it has received several large gifts from wealthy and philanthropic Friends, and is now on a safe and sure financial basis. The large and beautiful grounds render it one of the most attractive educational establishments in the State.

The great Catholic educational institution of Indiana, and one of the greatest institutions of that church in the world, is Notre Dame du Lac, situated in St. Joseph County. It has had a remarkable history. It is purely the outgrowth of the missionary spirit of that religious organization. In 1841 Bishop Hailandiere, of the Diocese of Vincennes, applied to the religious society in France, known as the "Congregation of the Holy Cross," for missionaries to labor in Indiana. The French missionaries had been the first to carry the story of the cross to the Indians in this section, and their traditions still fired the hearts of the young enthusiasts in the mother country. Father Sorin, then a young priest, only twenty-four years of age, and six others of his order at once volunteered. On the 5th of August, 1841, the little band of seven started on their great mis-



CHAUNCEY ROSE.



JOHN PURDUE.



WASHINGTON C. DEPAUW.



EDWIN J. PECK.



H. H. CULVER.

sion. They had but little means and took steerage passage on a packet ship, landing in New York September 13. They rested there three days, and then turned their faces to the West. They were twenty-five days in reaching Vincennes. They traveled from Albany to Buffalo by the Erie Canal, and then crossed Lake Erie to Toledo. By wagon and canal through Fort Wayne, Logansport and Lafayette, they journeyed to Vincennes. The next day after their arrival Father Sorin started to St. Peter's, a missionary station in Daviess County.

It was the oldest mission of the diocese. It had a little frame church with two small rooms added. It also had a kitchen and a small room for a school. There the Society of the Holy Cross took up its quarters for the winter. The mission had a farm of one hundred and sixty acres, and the new society set to work to improve it. They contemplated establishing a college at that place, but the Bishop objected. The Bishop finally told Father Sorin that he had a section of land on the St. Joseph River, near Lake Michigan, which he was willing the community should have, and on which he was willing they should build a college, provided they accomplished their task in two years. They prepared to start for this new home. The Bishop gave them a few hundred dollars, and with that they began their journey through the wilderness. It was a winter journey, and for days they struggled on, over the ice and snow, some on horseback and some with an ox team which hauled their little supply of provisions. The journey took ten days, but at last they stood on their new possession. The section of land lies between two very beautiful little lakes, and along the St. Joseph River. This, too, had been mission ground, and a little log church still remained.

It was anything but a cheering prospect. Here was an unbroken forest, and it was the depth of winter, but they set about making themselves as comfortable as possible. When spring came the total amount of money to the credit of the community was less than \$1500. With this they began to make plans for their college, a church and a novitiate. The college was to be a building 40 by 160 feet, and four stories and a half high. Sixty thousand feet of lumber and two hundred and fifty thousand brick were contracted for. During the winter a log church was erected.

The people could not give money but they gave their labor. The ambitious plans for the college building temporarily failed on account of the exhaustion of the funds, but a small building was erected, and in that the school opened. In 1844 the college was granted a charter by the State Legislature.

From that time it has prospered, although it has passed through some dark trials. Like most of the other colleges of the State it suffered from fire, and on the 23d of April, 1879, the University, with all its treasures, was destroyed by fire. The work of rebuilding, on a far more extensive scale, at once began. The University now comprises ten large buildings, all fitted up with the most modern appliances for study and for health. The surroundings are beautiful, and few more lovely spots can be found.

One mile west of the University is St. Mary's Academy for young ladies. The Academy buildings are large and commodious. It is under the direction of the Sisters of the Holy Cross.

Identified with the highest educational history of the State is St. Mary of the Woods, one of its pioneer institutions, founded in 1840 by the Sisters of Providence, from Ruilli-sur-Loire, Province of Brittany, France, and incorporated by the Legislature in 1845. This Academic institution is situated in Vigo County, on the Indianapolis & St. Louis Railway, four miles west of Terre Haute. The site is a healthful and pleasant one, giving to the Institution the charms of a sylvan retreat, with its quiet, salubrious climate and nature's own incentive to study.

The buildings are spacious and elegant, furnished with every invention of modern genius for the comfort and well-being of the inmates. The class rooms, study halls, music halls, dining hall, the long and cheerful corridors, are all arranged with a view to the health and education of the pupils. The grounds are extensive, and artistically laid out, with circling and intersecting concrete walks. Spreading trees, lovely shrines and attractive grottoes combine to render the recreation grounds a delightful resort. In the United States St. Mary of the Woods is the principal house of the Sisters of Providence, whose schools now extend through Indiana, Illinois, Nebraska, Michigan and Massachusetts, and from a struggling community of six

members in 1840 the Sisters have grown to be a prosperous congregation of more than six hundred.

To the munificence of the late Chauncey Rose Terre Haute and Indiana are indebted for the great scientific school known as the Rose Polytechnic Institute. Mr. Rose, through all his life, was the friend of education, and especially was he a friend of that system of education which teaches the practical use of science. Possessed of abundant means, he determined to establish in Terre Haute a school after his own designs. He invited a number of his friends to unite with him and form a body corporate with that end in view. In September, 1874, the association was incorporated, the objects of the corporation being the establishment and maintenance, in the County of Vigo, of an institution for the intellectual and practical education of young men. The name adopted was "The Terre Haute School of Industrial Science." Instruction in the school was provided to be based on practical mathematics, and the application of the physical sciences to the various arts and manufactures, with other branches of active business, and was to include such training as would furnish the pupils with useful and practical knowledge of some art or occupation, and enable them to earn a living.

In December Mr. Rose gave his first contribution, it being a deed conveying to the new school ten acres of valuable land, and \$100,000 in profitable securities. A few days later he gave an additional \$86,000, and arrangements were at once begun for the erection of a suitable building. On the 11th of September, 1875, the corner stone of the college building was laid, with appropriate ceremonies. The name was then changed to the "Rose Polytechnic Institute." A month or two later Mr. Rose made the Institute another gift of \$140,000. He did not live to see the work completed, but in his will gave the Institute a bequest of \$107,000, and made it the residuary legatee of his estate. The work of constructing the necessary buildings and fitting them out progressed, but it was not until 1882 that the Institute was formally opened for the reception of students. Today no polytechnic school in the country ranks higher than that at Terre Haute.

The latest of our educational institutions, but one that has already attracted the attention of the whole country,

is the Culver Military Academy on Lake Maxinkuckee. It was founded in 1894 by Mr. H. H. Culver, a citizen of St. Louis. The first building erected was a frame structure, which was destroyed by fire on the 4th of February, 1895. It was at once decided to erect new buildings, which would be practically fire-proof, and this work was done during the spring and summer of 1895. The school at once began to flourish. In September, 1895, the Missouri Military Academy, at Mexico, Missouri, was destroyed by fire. Mr. Culver at once made a proposition to its faculty to consolidate the institution with his academy at Culver, which was accepted. This gave to the Indiana school an addition of seventy cadets at once, and necessitated the erection of another large building. The location for the Academy is one of the finest in the State. Surrounding the Academy is a beautiful park of three hundred acres, laid out with great taste. The Academy is conducted on military principles, and is now the largest military school in the United States, with the exception of West Point.

A library system has become so much a part of the school system that a history of the efforts made to build up a State Library and to create libraries in the Townships belongs to a chapter devoted to schools and colleges.

In 1816, the delegates selected to frame a constitution for the State recognized the value of libraries, and in a clause of the constitution made it the duty of the General Assembly, whenever a new County was laid off, to reserve ten per cent. of the money received from the sale of lots in the county seat for the use of a public library, and they were at the same time to incorporate a library for that County.

The State Library was established in 1825, and the first books placed upon its shelves were a set of Bentham's works, given by the author through John Quincy Adams, who was then United States Minister at the Court of St. James. When these books were received by the State the Legislature determined to establish a State Library, and the sum of \$50 annually was appropriated to pay for binding such books as might be obtained, and \$30 was appropriated with which to purchase new books. This was a small beginning, but it was a beginning. The library has not grown in a manner commensurate with the growth of the

State in population and wealth, still it has grown. It now contains about twenty-six thousand volumes and about the same number of pamphlets. The selections have not been well made at all times, but those who have occasion to consult the contents of the shelves will find some authority upon almost every topic. The Legislature has always dealt with the library in a penurious manner, and with possibly one exception, the appropriations have been inadequate. For many years the Legislature kept the selection of a state librarian in its own hands, and about every session saw a change. In 1895, however, the library was put under the control of the State Board of Education. This change assures the retention of a librarian for such a length of time that he may know the contents of the library, and be of some value to those who desire to consult the books on the shelves.

In 1818 a law for the incorporation of public libraries was enacted. Several County libraries were established under this law. In 1852 a law was enacted providing for a tax of one quarter of a mill on the dollar, and twenty-five cents on each poll, to be used in the purchase of township libraries. The conception of this law was good, but it had some very lame features. Between \$200,000 and \$300,000 was raised and expended in the purchase of libraries. In 1867 there remained unexpended about \$50,000. This the Legislature diverted to the establishment of the Normal School at Terre Haute, and then repealed the law levying the tax. Fully one-half of the population of Indiana reside in the agricultural districts, and they were the ones to be benefited by maintaining Township libraries. The time is not far distant when every Township in Indiana will have a well organized and sustained library within its bounds. An interest in library work is being aroused that will doubtless result in the pursuance of a more liberal policy by future legislatures.

Indiana has had a number of citizens who have been devoted to the cause of education and have aided it liberally. She has not been as fortunate in that direction as many of the older States, nor has she had a Leland Stanford to endow for her a great university, nor a Rockefeller, for she has never had citizens who have amassed such colossal fortunes as they have accumulated, but she has had philan-

thropists and friends of education who have given largely of the means they possessed. All those who have contributed to build up our educational institutions cannot be named, but some deserve a place in the history of the State. Of those who have been the most liberal all are now dead, except Mr. Simon Yandes, who has given to Wabash College \$150,000.

EDWIN J. PECK.

Among the friends of education Edwin J. Peck must be counted. He was a successful business man, accumulating a large fortune through his own energies and business capacity. He was not a native of Indiana, but was born near New Haven, Connecticut, October 16, 1806. He did not come West until he had learned to appreciate the great benefits education confers. Born in New England, under the shadow of Yale, it is not to be wondered at that he became the firm and devoted friend of all educational institutions. On coming to Indiana, in 1833, he located first at Madison, but not long afterward, becoming interested in the construction of the State House at Indianapolis, he removed to that city and became the superintendent of construction of the new capitol. He also became interested in the construction of new bank buildings at Madison, Terre Haute, Lafayette and South Bend. He was one of the strong advocates of railroads, and for several years was one of the directors of the Indianapolis & Madison railroad, and was largely instrumental in pushing forward the Indianapolis & Terre Haute road, now known as the Vandalia. Of this road he was the first treasurer, and served in that capacity for several years, when he became president of the company. He managed the road until his death, and under his management it became known as one of the most successful roads in the West, if not in the whole country. In business matters he was quick, energetic and firm. He had the confidence of all who knew him, and especially of those with whom he had business transactions.

He was liberal to all charitable objects, and well earned the name of philanthropist. He was an ardent member of the Second Presbyterian church at Indianapolis, and when its present handsome structure was erected was one of the most liberal givers to the building fund. He gave to Wa-

bash College \$118,000; to the Protestant Orphans' Home, at Indianapolis, \$10,000, besides distributing other large sums for charities. He died November 6, 1876.

JOHN PURDUE.

John Purdue, who has endeared his name to the people of Indiana as the founder of the Purdue University at Lafayette, was born in Huntington County, Pennsylvania, on the 31st of October, 1802. His native village, Germany, located between two small mountain ranges, presented, during the years of his minority, all the scenes and incidents of pioneer life. It was a German settlement, as its name indicates, and the early residents were not blessed with any of the modern appliances that now lend a charm to farm life. Mr. Purdue's father, Charles Purdue, was a poor, hard-working, honest pioneer. John was the only son, the other seven children being daughters. Times were hard in the pioneer settlement then, and John Purdue was early on the list of "hired help." At the age of eight he was first sent to a country school, where he manifested eagerness and diligence in the pursuit of knowledge. He made rapid progress in his elementary studies, and after a few years of great industry, improving every opportunity, he became quite proficient in the English branches of study, and was himself called to the school room as a teacher. While still young, his father and family emigrated to Ross County, Ohio, near Adelphia, and thence to Worthington, Franklin County, seven miles from Columbus. After several years as a most successful teacher, Mr. Purdue visited Marion County, Ohio, where he purchased a quarter section of land and went to farming.

We shall not follow Mr. Purdue step by step in his commercial life. It was a magnificent success for the individual, but not less so for education in Indiana. He went to Lafayette in 1837, but did not locate there permanently until 1839, when he opened a store of general merchandise, and accumulated a large fortune, which was ever largely devoted to benevolent and educational purposes. His commercial operations in New York, during the Civil War, were characterized by great business foresight and unflinching integrity and attended by substantial rewards—

so much so that Mr. Purdue's name became a tower of credit in that city. He was truly the king of the produce merchants in that great metropolis during his business residence there.

In any historical sketch of Purdue University will be found a complete account of the change of the name of the "Agricultural College" to that of "Purdue University." Suffice it to say here, that, upon certain conditions, Mr. Purdue agreed to give to the Board of Trustees the amount of \$150,000. This beneficent gift, besides locating the institution near Lafayette, placed it upon a firm financial footing and rendered its future secure.

In 1876 Mr. Purdue died suddenly of apoplexy. He had lived an honest, upright life. Eulogies that tremble on the pen would fail to do him justice. He seized every opportunity of doing good as it presented itself and it was only through his last and crowning act that the students of Purdue University enjoy the manifold privileges now spread before them.

WASHINGTON CHARLES DEPAUW.

Indiana owes a great debt to Washington C. DePauw. His broad philanthropy led him to give largely of his wealth for charitable and educational purposes. Mr. DePauw was a native of Indiana, having been born in Salem, Washington County, January 4, 1822. Indiana had only been a State six years when he was born; Indianapolis was a hamlet of only a few houses. Salem was the Indiana Athens at that time, having the best schools in the young State, of which Mr. DePauw enjoyed the advantages. From his boyhood he displayed remarkable business instincts. Before he reached maturity he was appointed Deputy Clerk of the courts of Washington County, and at the age of twenty-two was elected Clerk. This office he held until 1853, when he organized a bank and became its president. He had invested his savings in saw mills, flour mills and real estate, and so wisely that he was a rising capitalist when he organized his first bank. The bank of Salem soon became known as one of the safest and most successful financial institutions in the State, and as his accumulations increased he invested them in other banking enterprises, soon becoming one of the leading bankers in

Indiana. He displayed rare administrative abilities and he was successful in every direction. During the war he purchased for the Government vast amounts of grain and provisions for the use of the armies in the field. He also invested largely in Government bonds, being one of those who had full faith in the final success of the Union cause. When the war ended the bonds rose rapidly in value and added immensely to his wealth.

He began investing more largely than ever in manufacturing industries. Having removed to New Albany he became the leader in all public and business matters. He took hold of an iron mill that had become bankrupt, and by his energy and executive ability placed it upon a paying basis. He did the same with a large woolen mill, but his crowning triumph in that line was in the introduction of the manufacture of plate glass. France, Belgium and England monopolized the manufacture of plate glass, and they held the prices so high in this country that plate glass was one of the most expensive of luxuries, and could only be enjoyed by a few. Several attempts to manufacture it in this country had been made and failed, the operators losing large sums of money. Such an attempt had been made at New Albany, and Mr. DePauw had backed the enterprise very largely. It, too, was on the eve of failure, when he took the direction of its affairs and made it a great success.

Mr. DePauw was always large in his charities, and no appeal for a worthy cause was ever made to him in vain. He was a prominent member of the Methodist church, and to it his gifts were always liberal. He was a friend of education, and after full deliberation he determined to make Asbury University the great educational institution of his church in the State, and of which he had been a Trustee for many years, the beneficiary of his will. The Trustees offered to change the name to DePauw, but to that he strongly objected upon many grounds, and finally the college authorities offered to retain the name of Asbury for the college of liberal arts, and to give the name of DePauw to the whole group of colleges.

CHAUNCEY ROSE.

Few men have done more for Indiana than Chauncey

Rose. He was born on a farm near Weatherfield Meadows, Connecticut, December 24, 1794. His ancestors were Scotch. He died at Terre Haute August 13, 1877. He survived his six brothers and his sister, all of whom died childless, so he was the last of his race. He had but little opportunity for education, and that only through a brief attendance upon the common schools of his district. He was characterized during his whole life by firmness of will, great energy and unyielding integrity. Mr. Rose settled in Terre Haute in 1818, two years after Indiana was admitted into the Union as a State. At that time there were but two cabins in Terre Haute, and the nearest boarding place was at Fort Harrison, the spot made famous by its defense by Zachary Taylor, against a large force of Indians, during the last war with Great Britain. The next year he moved to Parke County, where he conducted a flour mill. He returned to Terre Haute in 1825 and lived there until his death. He engaged in mercantile pursuits and became one of the best known merchants in that part of the State. He invested his profits in real estate, showing great foresight, so that all he bought rose rapidly in value as the little town grew in population. His farms soon became city lots and he a wealthy man. He was energetic in the work of securing railroads for the city of his residence, and was mainly instrumental in the construction of the Indianapolis & Terre Haute, and the Evansville & Terre Haute roads. He was long the principal owner of the Indianapolis & Terre Haute road, and managed it with rare skill.

There were few great business enterprises in Terre Haute in which he was not interested. He was ever ready to take hold of any proposition that promised to assist in the growth of his city or County. He was broad-minded in every way—in business, in benevolence and in feeling for the calamities or misfortunes of others. His manner of living was simple. He was never an idle man, and one of his methods of relaxation from the cares of business was to work about his lawn, trimming trees, planting them, or otherwise beautifying the place.

As an illustration of his character, the story of his connection with the administration of the estate of one of his brothers is told. His brother died in New York, and left an estate of \$1,000,000 for charitable purposes. Mr. Rose dis-

covered that under the peculiar laws of New York the estate could not be administered so as to carry out his brother's intention, so he went into court and contested the will, and after nearly six years of costly litigation got a decree declaring the will void. This left him sole heir to the vast estate. He then voluntarily disposed of this large sum in accordance with the declared intentions of his brother in his will.

Mr. Rose was a liberal contributor to all the churches in Terre Haute and a regular attendant upon church services. When he left his mother's roof to come West he promised her that he would pay her an annual visit at the old homestead, and this visit was rarely omitted, and many of the journeys were made on horseback. After her death he gave the old homestead to the town, and with it a sum of money to put it in repair and improve it. He also gave \$2000 to the town library and \$12,000 to endow an academy. He endowed the Rose Free Dispensary, the Rose Orphans' Home and the Rose Polytechnic, and gave very largely to the Ladies' Aid Society. All these benefactions were in Terre Haute, and to them Mr. Rose gave more than \$1,000,000.

H. H. CULVER.

Although, in the strict sense of the word, Mr. Culver was not a citizen of Indiana, his name must hereafter be linked with Indiana history, and he be given a place among her philanthropists. Mr. Culver was born near New London, Ohio, in 1840. He received a common school education, and upon arriving at maturity entered into business at Springfield, Illinois. He afterward went to Mattoon and then to Kansas City, and from there, in 1873, to St. Louis. He was a most successful business man, and rapidly accumulated money. He married an Indiana lady, and thus became identified with this State. Her home had been on Maxinkuckee, the beautiful lake in Northern Indiana, where the Culver Academy is now situated. On this lake Mr. Culver had a summer home, and to it he was wont to repair to rest from the cares of business. He conceived the idea that on this beautiful lake was the ideal spot for an academy for young boys. He established there the great military school which bears his name. Mr. Culver only

lived to see his great project get fairly underway, when death came to him. He died at St. Louis September 26, 1897.

WILLARD CARPENTER.

In Stratford, Orange County, Vermont, on March 15, 1803, was born Willard Carpenter, whose name stands near the head of the list of great philanthropists in Indiana. His life, up to the time he came to Indiana, in 1837, was an adventurous one. He was one of a very large family of children, and got what education he could while toiling with his father and brothers. At the age of nineteen he found himself in possession of seven dollars, money he had earned by hard labor, and saved up, a few pennies at a time. With this limited capital he started out to make his own way in the world. He was full of courage, and possessed an iron will. He bought a stock of notions and became a peddler.

He had many ups and downs until 1837, when he settled in Evansville, and made that his home during the remainder of his life. He soon became an active business man, and established a reputation for energy, foresight and enterprise. He took great interest in the internal improvement system the State was just then inaugurating, especially in the construction of the canal to Evansville. When the system fell to the ground, owing to the bankruptcy of the State, he became a great advocate of railroads, and spent his money freely to promote such enterprises. He was large-hearted and charitable, and gave large sums to relieve the poor and needy. He was especially the friend of all young men who were struggling to get a start in business. He founded the Evansville Christian Home for friendless girls, and gave the city of Evansville ten acres of land for a park, and then gave \$400,000 to establish a library in the city. It is now one of the finest libraries in the State. In his honor it is called the "Willard Library."

CHAPTER XV.

LAWS AND COURTS.

Under the French rule, which existed over the territory northwest of the Ohio from the establishment of the first post until 1763, the only laws known were such as were sent out from Versailles for the special government of the colonies. They were definite and minute in some matters, but in other important particulars the Governors of the colonies were left to their own wills. In 1732 a code known as the "common law of Paris" was extended over the French possessions in America outside of Canada. Much of the code was not adapted to the conditions existing in the sparsely settled regions, and it was often necessary for the maintenance of the various posts that the commandants should exercise arbitrary authority. From all that can be learned the authority thus exercised was never oppressive, and was generally acquiesced in by the settlers at the posts. No courts or judges were in existence. In most cases the commandants at the posts decided the questions at issue, and in the others he called together some of the most important citizens, who heard the cause and gave judgment. Few causes for lawsuits could arise, as none of the settlements consisted of more than fifty or one hundred families, and as they held their land in common, cultivating only so much as would furnish them the necessities of life, they had little to quarrel about.

When the Territory was ceded to Great Britain by France, the common law of England was extended over it by proclamation, but no efforts were made to enforce it, and no courts were established. In fact, there was little occasion for law of any kind. The British made no attempt

to settle any part of the Territory, and only occupied a few of the posts with small military forces which were amenable to military law. Instead of attempting settlements west of the Alleghany Mountains, every effort was made to prevent settlers from crossing the mountains. No records can be found showing that the British even established any such minor tribunals as justices' courts in any part of the territory northwest of the Ohio River. Certainly none such were established in that part of it now known as Indiana. They did not think it worth while even to take possession, until 1777, of the post at Vincennes, the only place where there were any civilized people, and it remained in their possession but a short time.

When General Clark conquered the territory, Virginia set up a claim to jurisdiction over it, but did not deem it practicable or necessary to attempt to establish any courts until 1779, when John Todd was appointed County Lieutenant for the County of Illinois, the whole territory being known by that name at that time. He sought to establish a court of civil and criminal jurisdiction at Vincennes. The commandant of the post, Colonel J. M. P. Legras, was made President of the Court. No record of any action by this court remains, except its assumption of the right to make grants of land.

After General Arthur St. Clair was appointed Governor of the Northwest Territory, he began to organize the Territory for a better government. The capital was established at Marietta, on the Muskingum River. He arrived at that place in July, 1788. Samuel Holden Parsons, James Mitchell Varnum and John Cleves Symmes had been appointed Judges of the Territory. Under the ordinance of 1787 the Governor and Judges had a right to enact laws for the government of the Territory, or rather they were authorized to adopt and publish in the district such laws of the original States as might be suited to the district. They had no right to make and publish original laws. This court at Marietta, contrary to the advice of Governor St. Clair, enacted quite a number of original laws, and endeavored to put them in force. The matter was taken to Congress, and a resolution disapproving them was adopted by the House. In 1795 the Governor and Judges met at Cincinnati and enacted a number of laws adapted from

those in existence in the original States. They treated the laws promulgated at Marietta as being still in existence, but their validity was questioned until 1799, when they were re-enacted by the Territorial Legislature.

In 1800 the district was divided and General William Henry Harrison appointed Governor of the Indiana Territory. The laws that had been made at Cincinnati were in force in the new Territory of Indiana until they were superseded by others adopted by the new court. William Clark, Henry Vanderburgh and John Griffin were appointed Judges of Indiana Territory. The Governor and Territorial Judges met in Vincennes, in January, 1801, and passed ten laws on various subjects, one of which was to establish courts of general quarter sessions of the peace in the Counties of Knox, Randolph and St. Clair. The first court held legally in Indiana began its first session on the 3d of March, 1801. A grand jury was impaneled and the machinery of the Territorial Government was fully set going. In 1807 all the laws of the Territory were revised and re-enacted by the General Assembly, thus validating those of doubtful legality. According to this revised code, treason, murder, arson and horse stealing were punishable with death. Whipping was recognized as a sufficient punishment for a number of smaller crimes and misdemeanors, such as hog stealing, bigamy, burglary, larceny and disobedience to parents.

When the Territory entered upon its second stage of political existence, Benjamin Parke, James Scott and Walter Taylor were appointed by the President Judges of the General Court of the Territory. In 1814 Congress authorized the Territorial Legislature to lay off the Territory into five districts, each of which was to elect a member of the Territorial Council. By this time the question of the jurisdiction and powers of the various courts which had been established began to be troublesome. In January, 1814, the General Assembly of the Territory attempted to reorganize the judicial system. A law was passed dividing the Territory into three judicial districts. One of the Judges appointed by the President was to act as Presiding Judge in each of these districts, and provision was made for the appointment of three "Associate" Judges in each County, who were to sit with the Presiding Judge in the trial of all

causes. This did not suit the Judges appointed by the President, and was in conflict with the powers conferred by Congress on the Court. Benjamin Parke, one of the Judges, and one of the ablest jurists Indiana has ever known, soon after the passage of the act referred to, addressed the following letter to Governor Posey:

“By an act, entitled ‘An act reorganizing courts of justice,’ passed at the late session of the Legislature, the Territory is divided into three districts, in each of which a circuit court is established—the court to consist of one of the judges appointed by the Government of the United States for the Territory, as president, and three associates, commissioned under the authority of the Territory, and to have jurisdiction in all cases, at law and in equity. The first circuit, comprising the Counties of Knox, Gibson and Warrick, is assigned to me. The Legislature is empowered to make laws, in all cases, for the good government of the Territory, not repugnant to the laws of the United States. In the delegation of power, that which is not expressly given is reserved. Implications cannot be admitted further than to carry into effect the power given. The laws of the United States being paramount to the laws of the Territory, if they are found in conflict, the latter must yield to the former. Congress has defined the jurisdiction of the judges appointed by the general government, and made one judge, in the absence of the others, competent to hold a court. The judges are co-ordinate, and their jurisdiction extends over the whole Territory. They are judges, in and over, and not of a part of, the Territory. As the judges derive their jurisdiction and power from the Government of the United States, they cannot be controlled, in the exercise of their functions, by persons deriving their authority from the Government of the Territory. The judges appointed for the Territory are limited, by the laws of the United States, to the exercise of a common-law jurisdiction. The act, therefore, as it regards the organization and jurisdiction of the circuit courts, is repugnant to the laws of the United States, and neither confers any powers, nor imposes any duty, on the judges appointed for the Territory by the United States. The general government has appointed for the Territory three judges, with a common law jurisdiction; but when, where, or in what manner they

are to hold a court—or rather exercise the jurisdiction with which they are invested—Congress has not provided. I consider it the duty of the Legislature to do it. To you, sir, it belongs to watch over the affairs of the Territory, and to see that the laws are faithfully executed; and, on account of the relation in which I stand to the Territorial government, I have thought it my duty to make this representation to you. The peculiarity of the case leaves me no other mode of stating my objections and the cause of my not conforming to the law. The Legislature has organized certain courts, and assigned me to perform certain duties; but the law, constituting the one, and directing the other, is unconstitutional; and as I can derive no authority from it, it imposes no obligation. I shall, therefore, not hold the courts for the circuit.”

Thus the elaborate judicial system constituted by the Legislature was wiped out and the Territory was left under the jurisdiction of the Judges appointed by the General Government. Governor Posey realized the situation and called the General Assembly to meet at Corydon, August 15, 1814. The main duty of that session was to organize some kind of a judicial system. That the difficulties in the way may be better understood, it is well to turn to a memorial to Congress addressed by the Legislature at that session. The memorial said:

“By a law of Congress, one of the judges, appointed by virtue of the ordinance for the government of this Territory, is authorized to hold a court. Thus, one of the judges being competent to hold a court, may decide a principle or point of law at one term; and, at the next term, if the other two judges are present, they may decide the same principle or point of law different. Thus, the decisions of the Superior Court, organized, we presume, by the general government, finally to settle in uniformity the principles of law and fact, which may be brought before them by the suitor, may be, and frequently are, in a state of fluctuation; hence the rights of persons and property become insecure. There is another evil growing out of the system of one judge being competent to hold the Superior Court, or that court which forms the last resort of the suitor in any Government, and particularly in the Territory, for appeals are taken from all the courts of inferior jurisdiction in the

Territory, to the court organized by the ordinance, which inferior courts are never constituted of less than two judges. Thus, the suitor in the Territory is frequently driven to the necessity of appealing from the judgment of two men to that of one. But this dilemma only constitutes a part of the solecism for the next Superior Court, as the other two judges may overturn the principles of the decision of their brother judge at the preceding term. Hence, the want of uniformity in the decisions of the court of last resort. Anger and the warmth of suitors, and a confusion in our system of jurisprudence, is the result."

At the same session the General Assembly established another court. It divided the Territory into three judicial circuits, and made provision for holding courts therein, and defined the jurisdiction of such courts. The Governor was invested with the authority to appoint a presiding Judge in each circuit, and two associate Judges in each County. By the law the Governor was required, in selecting his presiding Judges, to choose men "learned and experienced in the law," who were citizens of the United States and "who had regularly practiced in some of the courts of the United States, or in this Territory, three years." Congress, soon after the receipt of the memorial of the General Assembly, changed the law so as to require the presence of at least two of the Judges to constitute a court.

The problem was solved two years later by the admission of Indiana as a State into the Union. Benjamin Parke was appointed Judge for the District of Indiana, by the President, and held that office until his death in 1835. Under the constitution of 1816 the judiciary powers of the State, both as to matters of law and equity, were vested in one Supreme Court, in Circuit Courts, and in such inferior courts as the General Assembly might establish. The Supreme Court was to consist of three judges to be appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the Senate, and to hold their offices for a term of seven years. The General Assembly was given authority to confer upon the Supreme Court original jurisdiction in capital or chancery cases where the President of the Circuit Court might be interested or prejudiced. The Circuit Courts were to consist of a President and two Associate Judges; the Presidents of the Cir-

cuit courts were to be elected by the General Assembly, in joint session, and the Associate Judges by the voters of the Counties. Each County was to have two Associate Judges. The President alone or in connection with one of the Associate Judges could hold a court, and the two Associates, in the absence of the President, could hold a court, but could not try capital or chancery cases. The constitution also provided for the selection of clerks for the various courts; that for the Supreme Court was to be chosen by the Court, and clerks for the Circuit Courts were to be elected by the people, but no one could be elected who had not previously obtained from a Judge of the Supreme or Circuit Court a certificate that he was qualified for the place. Under the constitution a competent number of justices of the peace were to be elected by the people. Later the Legislature created probate courts to have special jurisdiction of probate matters.

The constitution of 1851 made several important changes in the judiciary. It provided for a Supreme Court, Circuit Courts and such inferior courts as the General Assembly may determine upon. Instead of being appointed by the Governor the Supreme Judges are elected by the people of the State, although they must be chosen from certain defined districts. The term of service was reduced from seven to six years. The General Assembly is empowered to give the Supreme Court such original jurisdiction as it may determine upon at any time. Under the constitution the Supreme Court is to consist of not less than three nor more than five Judges, but several efforts have been made to increase this number. The Supreme Court is required to give a written opinion in every case, and upon every question arising in the record or in the decision of the lower Court. The choice of a clerk of the Court was taken from the Court and given to the people. Associate Judges were done away with in the Circuit Courts. The constitution provides that no one elected to any judicial office shall be eligible to any other office during the term for which he has been elected, other than a judicial one. The General Assembly is given authority to modify or abolish the grand jury system.

The first three Judges of the Supreme Court, under the State organization, were James Scott, John Johnson and

Jesse L. Holman. Scott and Holman served until 1831, but Johnson only served a few months and was succeeded by Isaac Blackford, who served until 1853. In creating inferior courts the Legislature established what were known as Courts of Common Pleas. These courts were given exclusive jurisdiction in probate matters, and concurrent jurisdiction with the Circuit Courts in some other matters. This created great confusion. All the Courts assumed to pass upon the constitutionality of laws enacted by the General Assembly, and the State witnessed the anomaly of having laws enforced in one County, and declared unconstitutional in another. When the Legislature enacted the prohibitory liquor law in 1855, some of the Circuit Judges declared it constitutional and enforced it, while others declared it void. This lasted until the Supreme Court finally overthrew the law entirely. The confusion grew worse after the Common Pleas Court was established, for then some Counties were operating under two different laws at the same time, according as the opinions of the Judges differed. This condition could not last, and finally the General Assembly abolished the Courts of Common Pleas, and in Counties where the business was too great to be transacted by the Circuit Courts, Superior and Criminal Courts have been established, with well defined jurisdiction.

Several times the Supreme Court has been overburdened with work, and measures of relief have been sought. By an amendment to the constitution, adopted in 1881, the word "inferior" was stricken out. The first experiment of this kind was the creation of the Supreme Court Commission, consisting of five members, appointed by the Judges of the Supreme Court. The Commission was to consider and pass upon such causes as might be assigned it by the Supreme Court. This Commission was maintained for some years, but it presented so many anomalous features that it was also finally abandoned. In 1893, as a temporary experiment, the Legislature established a Court of Appeals, a sort of intermediate court between the Supreme and Circuit Courts. This court was to consist of five judges, elected from specified districts, and to continue for four years. The Legislature of 1897 continued the life of the court for another term of four years. In 1899 it was again extended and an additional Judge provided for.

The constitution of 1851 provided that "The General Assembly, at its first session after the adoption of this constitution, shall provide for the appointment of three commissioners whose duty it shall be to revise, simplify and abridge the rules, practice, pleadings and forms of the courts of justice. And they shall provide for abolishing the distinct forms of actions at law now in use; and that justice shall be administered in a uniform mode of pleading, without distinction between law and equity." Under this section the laws of the State were codified, and a new system of rules and practice introduced. The laws were again revised in 1881 by a Commission appointed by the General Assembly for that purpose, but this revision was never adopted by the General Assembly. Since then there has been no general revision. Under the constitution no law can take effect until it has been printed and distributed to all the Counties of the State, unless the act itself declares the existence of an emergency. It is proper to say that few acts are permitted to escape the emergency clause, the framer always insisting that the demand for the enactment of his measure is so great that it absolutely amounts to an emergency.

By the constitution the General Assembly is limited to biennial sessions of sixty-one days each, including Sundays and holidays. The actual working days of a session are only about fifty. Now that the State has grown so large in population, and with such great and diversified interests, these sessions are all too short for the adequate transaction of business, and wild and reckless legislation has been the result. Under the constitution juries in criminal cases are the sole judges of both the law and the facts; they fix the degree of the crime and assess the penalty. While a Judge has actually no voice in deciding the law of a case tried by a jury, if the jury errs in the law the Judge does not hesitate to grant a new trial. Capital punishment has been abolished for all crimes except those of treason and murder in the first degree, and even for murder in the first degree the jury may, in its discretion, make the punishment imprisonment for life. This power of the jury to determine the punishment to be assessed against the violator of the law has been materially modified by the law enacted in 1897, known as "the indeterminate sentence law." By this

act the jury decides upon the guilt or innocence only, in many cases, and the Judge, in pronouncing sentence, leaves the term of the imprisonment to be determined by the Board of Prison Control. That is, the Judge certifies to the prison authorities the crime committed and the minimum and maximum terms of imprisonment fixed by the statute, and the good behavior of the convict determines the actual length of his confinement. If his conduct is such as to impress the authorities with the belief that he has reformed, and if permitted to go at large will live as a law abiding citizen, they can release him at any time, but under no circumstances can they hold a prisoner for a greater length of time than the maximum term of imprisonment fixed by the statute, or release him before he has served the minimum. The constitutionality of this law has been questioned, and some Judges have held it to be invalid, because of the fact that it takes from the jury the power to determine the extent of the punishment.

Up to the present time the Courts of the State have been remarkably free from anything like scandal. Charges of corruption have at times been made against individual Judges of some of the inferior courts, but even they have never been maintained. Except in one instance, or possibly two, no attempts have ever been made to influence the court by outside or political pressure. The first case of the kind was in 1830. At that time the Governor appointed the members of the Supreme Court, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. In 1830 Governor James B. Ray took umbrage at the action of some of the members of the Supreme Court, because, it was charged, they refused to aid him in his Senatorial aspirations, and as the terms for which they had been appointed had expired, he attempted to re-construct the court. He nominated Judge Blackford, but refused to nominate Judges Scott and Holman, naming Stephen C. Stevens and John T. McKinney in their stead. This action of the Governor created intense excitement throughout the State. It was the first time the constitution of the court had been made to hinge upon the personal preferences or personal ambition of one man, and the people looked upon it as an attempt to prostitute the court. At first the Senate refused to confirm the new men, which added fuel to the flame of excitement, and the State

was torn into factions. Finally the Senate yielded to the Governor, and Stevens and McKinney were confirmed, but Ray's popularity was destroyed. Up to that time he had been the most popular man in the State, but ever afterward was one of the most unpopular.

It was not until the administration of Governor Whitcomb that the question of politics again entered into the composition of the court. During the first quarter of a century of the State's existence the men selected for those high positions had been chosen for their peculiar fitness, without regard to their party affiliations. Governor Whitcomb was a party man of the strictest sect, and when he was elected party politics ran high in the State. The doctrine that to the victors belonged the spoils was then taking fast hold on the sentiment of the people, but the effort to construct the highest court of the State on party lines almost resulted in a revolution, so great was the excitement and indignation. Contrasted with the methods of the present day it shows what great changes have taken place in public sentiment. When Governor Whitcomb entered upon the discharge of the duties of his office, the Judges of the Supreme Court were Isaac Blackford, who had been appointed in 1817; Charles Dewey, who had been appointed in 1836, on the resignation of Stephen C. Stevens, and Jeremiah Sullivan, who had been appointed in 1837, to succeed John T. McKinney. Without any disparagement to the eminent men who have occupied seats on the Supreme Bench it can be said that the bench in 1843 was, all things considered, the ablest the State has had. Blackford was a Democrat and Dewey and Sullivan were Whigs. Each had been selected for his peculiar fitness for the position. Their terms expired and Governor Whitcomb sent in the names of Blackford, Samuel E. Perkins and Thomas L. Smith. They were all Democrats. The news of this action of the Governor was flashed over the State and at once created the most intense indignation. The Senate confirmed Blackford, but refused to consent to the appointment of Smith and Perkins. A bitter debate took place in the Senate, and a long and acrimonious contest with the Governor followed. Governor Whitcomb was peculiarly set in his ways and opinions, and could ill brook opposition. The newspapers took the matter up and one attack on the Governor

followed another. He would not yield, but when the Senate rejected his nominees he promptly sent in the names of other gentlemen, and they were as promptly rejected.

This contest was kept up until the close of the session. After adjournment the Governor sent to Dewey and Sullivan temporary appointments, to last until the next meeting of the Legislature. When it met he renewed his efforts to place two Democrats upon the bench, but they were rejected as fast as their names were sent in and again the session closed without filling the vacancies. The Governor then sent Judge Dewey another temporary appointment. Before accepting it the Judge called upon the Governor and told him he should decline the temporary appointment unless the Governor would assure him that at the next session of the Senate his name would be sent in for the regular appointment. The Governor informed him, so it was claimed, that it was his intention, when the Legislature again assembled, to nominate Judge Dewey and Mr. Perkins. On that understanding Mr. Dewey accepted the temporary appointment. When the Legislature met the names of Perkins and Thomas L. Smith were again sent in, and Judge Dewey accused the Governor of breaking faith with him. Judge Dewey addressed the public through the newspapers, openly charging that the Governor had broken faith, and a fierce newspaper war ensued. It was the general understanding that Governor Whitcomb did intend to nominate Judge Dewey, but was turned from his purpose by Ashbel P. Willard, who was just then becoming a political power in the State. Perkins and Smith were finally confirmed by the Senate, and a political bias was thus given to the court, which it has retained to this day. Since the adoption of the new constitution making those offices elective by the people, candidates have always been named by political parties. It may well be questioned if the method of making political Judges has improved the judiciary. To such a point has the desire for office reached that to get a nomination a man must now work and toil, scheme and plot and make combinations, so that many of the ablest and purest men of the State will not enter the race for a judicial position.

As the character, abilities and virtues of the men who were first called to interpret the laws of the Legislature,

and their relation to the constitution and the rights of the people, had much to do with fixing the character of our institutions, and giving the State its place in history, it will not be out of place at this point to give a short sketch of the three men, who did so much to impress a lofty tone upon the judiciary of the State. Isaac Blackford was born in New Jersey, in 1786. He graduated from Princeton college at the age of twenty, and immediately entered upon the study of law. Upon receiving his license to practice he removed to Dayton, Ohio, but remained there only a short time, when he came to Indiana, making Brookville his home. He afterward removed to Salem, and when Washington County was organized he was made clerk of the court and recorder of the County, these two offices being frequently combined in those days. In 1815 he was appointed one of the Territorial Judges and removed to Vincennes. The position on the bench not suiting him at that time he resigned and engaged once more in the practice of law. He was a member of the first Legislature under the State Government, and was chosen Speaker of the House of Representatives. In 1817 he was appointed by Governor Jennings a member of the Supreme Court and held that position until 1853. As a Judge he was upright, fearless and impartial. He was a profound lawyer and a close student of the higher principles of law, and to the determination of a cause he always brought strict application, a clear mind, sound judgment and great patience. No question in a case was too trivial to be closely studied and analyzed by him.

His legal opinions were always prepared with the greatest care and he bestowed upon them great labor. They were often re-written several times before they reached the state of perfection he aimed at. They were always clear, always dignified, always precise. He collected and edited the decisions of the Supreme Court from its organization until the adoption of the present constitution, and his reports have always been regarded as authority. In politics he was originally a Whig, but in 1836 he refused to support General William Henry Harrison for President, because he believed that gentleman to be too strong an advocate of slavery, and from that time he always acted with the Democrats. He was in no sense of the word a politician,

but in 1825 was a candidate for Governor of the State, and was defeated by James Brown Ray. In 1855 he was appointed by President Pierce a member of the Court of Claims, in Washington, and held that position until his death, which occurred on the last day of December, 1859. He lived the greater part of his life alone. He was not misanthropic, but had the tastes and habits of a student.

Charles Dewey was a large man mentally and physically. He stood six feet high and weighed two hundred pounds. He was born in Massachusetts in 1784, and was educated at Williams college. In 1816 he came to Indiana, making Paoli his home. It was not long until he commanded a very large and lucrative practice. He took great interest in politics and twice was a candidate for Congress, but was defeated each time. For twenty years he assiduously practiced at the bar, and reached the very highest point in the estimation of the people and his fellow members of the bar. In 1836 he was appointed, by Governor Noble, a member of the Supreme Court. He brought to the bench a ripe knowledge of the law, and great energy. For twelve years he remained a member of that court and continually grew in the estimation of the people. He fully sustained his high reputation as a lawyer, and added to the standing the court had already obtained. He died in 1862.

Jeremiah Sullivan was a Virginian by birth, and was educated at William and Mary college. During the last war with Great Britain he served in the army, attaining the rank of Captain. In 1817 he came to Indiana, locating at Madison, where he at once began the practice of law. In 1837 he was appointed to the Supreme Bench, and served nine years with great distinction. He was an able lawyer, and his judicial opinions were always clear. His opinions were models of legal composition. He was a writer of great versatility, and contributed largely to the newspapers of the day, always under a nom de plume. His writings contained a rich vein of humor and satire that made them very pungent. He died in 1870, on the very day he was to take the oath of office as Judge of the Criminal Court at Madison.

In the early years of the State the power to grant divorces was reserved to the Legislature. Several times the exercise of this power reached almost into the borders of

the scandalous. The whole thing was ex-parte. The petitioner would file his petition, setting up his grounds for asking to be relieved from his marital obligations, and upon that petition the Legislature would decide, without taking evidence on either side of the question. Frequent attempts were made to have divorce matters relegated to the courts, but they were all opposed. Finally, one day a Senator presented a petition from a man asking for a divorce on the ground that his wife had given birth to a colored child. Horror of horrors! Such an offense certainly entitled the petitioner to all the relief asked for, and many indignant orators took occasion to descant upon the enormity of the offense. Just as the vote was about to be taken, and when it was assured that the prayer of the petitioner would be granted by a unanimous vote, the Senator arose and stated that he had neglected to give the Senate one piece of information, and that was, that both parents of the child were colored. This little trick showed the absurdity of legislative divorces and the power to grant divorces was delegated to the courts.

The Legislature early took decided grounds against dueling, and as early as 1814 enacted a very stringent law on that subject. Among other things it provided that all persons elected to office, or appointed thereto, either civil or military, in addition to the usual oath, should be required to swear that they had neither directly nor indirectly, given, accepted, or knowingly carried a challenge to any person or persons, to fight in single combat or otherwise, in or out of the Territory, since the first of February, 1814, and that they would neither give, accept, nor knowingly carry a challenge to such combat during their term of office.

Prior to 1835 all taxes were levied on lands, by the acre, and not according to valuation. The land was divided into three classes, and taxes were levied according to the class in which it belonged. In 1835 the Legislature provided for a valuation of the land and for the levying of taxes according to such valuation. This law provoked great opposition among the people at first, but was finally acquiesced in by all, and it has been followed from that time to the present.

"Justice shall be administered freely and without purchase, completely and without denial, speedily and without delay."—Section 12, Bill of Rights.

In the light of the judicial history of the State it would look as if this section in the Bill of Rights was inserted in a spirit of irony. So many delays have been provided for by statute, so many obstacles have been built up by courts, and so loose has been the practice of juries, that justice is oftener thwarted than upheld. The rights of the people to have justice upon those who violate the laws have almost been lost sight of in the statutes of the State and in the rules of practice adopted by the courts. The vexations of the law's delays are as great in modern Indiana as they were when Shakespeare thought they were enough to justify a man in making his quietus. Penal laws have been made almost without number, and penalties have been attached, but their enforcement has been hampered in a hundred ways, and the people have sometimes resorted to lynch law, alleging as their excuse the failure of the courts to punish crime, but oftener they have in silence witnessed criminals going unwhipped of justice, or inadequately punished for their offenses.

CHAPTER XVI.

BANKS.

Indiana, in its short history, has had many ups and downs in a financial way, sometimes being on the very hill-top of prosperity, and then it has gone down into the depths of business prostration. It has tinkered with all kinds of currency, from the very good to the extremely bad. Like all the other States, especially those of the middle west, Indiana had to go through a very severe sweating process before it finally obtained a safe and secure system of banking. In fact, it was not until Congress enacted a National Banking Law that the State got out of the terrible slough into which it had fallen through a very loose and dangerous banking system it had inaugurated. The State started right, but finally a craze for speculation created a demand for a greater volume of currency, and the legislators yielded to the demand and opened up a wide field for making paper money, which resulted in bankruptcy and ruin to thousands, and caused great distress to many thousands more. In the early settlement of the Territory such a thing as money was practically unknown, peltries being used as the only currency. Values were estimated in coon skins and other furs. Such a state of affairs could only exist in a sparsely settled country, where manufactures were unknown, and the only trading done was for the actual necessities of life. In those early days the settlers raised on their little farms about all they needed to sustain life, and their purchases were limited to salt, iron, dye-stuffs and a few articles of that character. For those they exchanged wheat, corn, hogs and peltries.

Spanish milled dollars, and a few notes of the Bank of the United States, or some one of its branches, occasionally found their way into the Territory, but this supply proved too small for the transaction of the business which was constantly growing. The war with Great Britain caused an era of prosperity. The Government was disbursing large sums of money for troops and supplies, and this influx of currency created a speculative mania and prices went up accordingly. Indiana had no distinctive currency of its own, but in 1814 the Territorial Legislature chartered two banking institutions, one at Vincennes, which was to have a capital stock of five hundred thousand dollars, and one at Madison with a capital of seven hundred and fifty thousand dollars. The capital for these two banks was soon subscribed and their bills put in circulation. This added to the flood of currency that had been coming into the Territory from the General Government. But dark days were ahead for Indiana. The war with Great Britain came suddenly to an end; the large disbursements by the Government ceased, and financial distress followed. During the war specie payments had been suspended by the banks; the banks, especially those in the West, had issued far more currency than they could redeem. Most of that which had been disbursed by the General Government in this Territory had been bills of banks in Ohio, and they were nearly all swept away by the financial maelstrom.

When the members of the first constitutional convention in Indiana met, they put a clause in the organic law relating to banks that was well considered. It read:

"There shall not be established or incorporated in this State, any bank or banking company, or moneyed institution for the purpose of issuing bills of credit, or bills payable to order or bearer: Provided, That nothing herein contained shall be so construed as to prevent the General Assembly from establishing a State bank, and branches, not exceeding one branch for any three Counties, and to be established at such place within such Counties as the Directors of the State Bank may select: Provided, There be subscribed and paid in specie, on the part of individuals, a sum equal to thirty thousand dollars."

It was also provided that the bank at Vincennes and the one at Madison, chartered under the Territorial Govern-

ment, should retain their charters, and that the General Assembly might, at its pleasure, adopt either of such banks as a State bank. On the first of January, 1817, the bank of Vincennes was adopted by the Legislature as a State bank. The powers of the corporation were enlarged and an additional capital of one million dollars was authorized. Of the ten thousand shares of new stock authorized, three thousand seven hundred and fifty were to be reserved for the State, to be subscribed for from time to time by the Governor; private individuals and companies, and corporations, were authorized, under certain rules and regulations, to subscribe for the remaining six thousand two hundred and fifty shares. The bank was empowered, conditionally, to adopt the Farmers' and Merchants' bank at Madison, as one of its branches, and to establish other branches. Branches were established at Brookville, Corydon and Vevay.

The bank, thus enlarged and with such increased powers, at once entered upon a course of mismanagement that soon wrought widespread ruin. Some of the branches issued bills for as little as six and a quarter cents. In 1821 its reckless management caused the General Assembly to authorize legal proceedings to cancel its charter. Among other things charged and proved were the contracting of debts to double the amount of deposits; the issuing, with a fraudulent purpose, of more paper than the bank had means for redeeming; the declaring and paying of large dividends to the stockholders, while the bank was refusing to pay specie for its notes; and the embezzling of \$250,000 deposited in the bank by an agent of the United States for safe keeping. The notes of the bank and its branches, except those of the bank at Madison, became wholly worthless. All of the notes of the Madison bank were ultimately redeemed.

This crash came at a time when the State was suffering from the great depression which followed the ending of the war with Great Britain, and added immeasurably to the distresses of the people. The commercial disasters of 1821, 1822 and 1823 were not the only afflictions of the people. There was an alarming death rate. It has been estimated that during those three years at least one-fourth of the entire population either died or left the State. Every kind

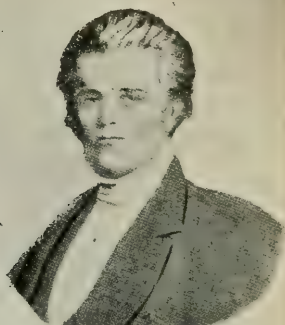
of business was prostrated. The Government, in a vain attempt to extend relief, added to the ruin. Prior to that time the price of Government land had been two dollars per acre, and Congress, thinking that reducing the price would stay the tide of disaster, fixed it at one dollar and a quarter. This, however, aggravated the situation, for the reduction of the value of Government land, reduced just, in the same proportion, that of all the land in the State held by individuals. In 1832, the State began its work of internal improvement. It borrowed several millions of dollars in the East, and by giving employment to large numbers of men created another artificial era of prosperity, and speculation was resumed on a grand scale. Just at that time Michigan was wrestling with the currency question, and by a very liberal banking law had permitted the establishment of a number of banks, many of them virtually having nothing back of the notes they issued. The contractors on the canals and other public works in this State took advantage of this cheap money in Michigan, and used it nearly altogether in paying their laborers.

This currency, to the amount of many thousands of dollars weekly, was paid out by the contractors, and soon no other kind was in circulation in Indiana. The merchants were compelled to take it, but did so at a heavy discount, the laborers who had earned it always getting the worst of the bargain. The merchants could not use it to pay their debts, except at a large discount. At the same time millers, merchants and others issued bills. As a rule these bills, or "shin-plasters," were only redeemable in merchandise at the store or mill of the issuer. While the issuer maintained his credit at home they circulated very freely in his immediate neighborhood, but were of no value anywhere else. Most of the merchants and millers eventually became bankrupt and left thousands of dollars of their currency unredeemed. Asbury University issued a great many of these "shin-plasters," made payable in currency "when the University should have the funds." It is proper to say that the University eventually redeemed every note.

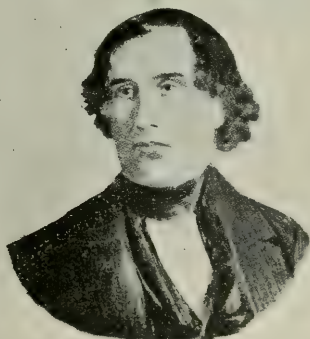
At the session of the Legislature in 1834 the State bank of Indiana was chartered. It was to have a capital of \$1,600,000, in shares of \$50 each, and of the entire capital stock the State agreed to take one-half. It was provided



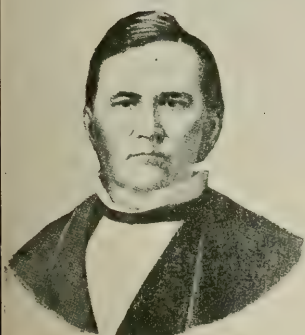
JAMES B. RAY.



NOAH NOBLE.



JAMES WHITCOMB.



DAVID WALLACE.



SAMUEL BIGGER.

that the State should borrow the sum of \$1,300,000. Of that amount \$800,000 was to be used in the payment of the State's share of the capital stock of the bank, and the remaining \$500,000 was to be loaned at six per cent. interest to individual subscribers to the stock, to assist them in paying for the same. That is, on each \$50 share the subscriber would pay \$18.75, and the State would pay for him the remaining \$31.25. The bank was required to hold the dividends on this stock, and pay the same to the State in discharge of the interest accruing, and to reimburse the State for the loan. By this means the individual stockholder was enabled to secure his stock by only paying actually \$18.75 on each \$50, the profits soon paying for the entire stock and the interest.

The State was divided into ten districts for branches, provision being made for the creation of three other districts. The bank was authorized to receive deposits, buy and sell gold, silver, bullion and foreign coins; discount commercial paper, and issue bills payable to the bearer. The bank was not at any time to suspend specie payment. The branches were to be mutually responsible for the redemption of all bills issued, but each branch was to have its own profits. No notes were to be issued of a less denomination than \$5, and the Legislature reserved the right to raise this limit to \$10. The State was to elect the President and one-half of the directors, the stockholders to elect the remaining directors. Before granting any application for a loan of \$500 or upward it was required that at least five of the seven directors should concur. No loan to exceed \$5000 was to be made without the consent of the mother bank. By a rule the banks would not loan to exceed \$200 to any merchant, the whole idea seeming to be to develop the resources of the State by loaning money to farmers and those engaged in buying and selling farm produce and live stock. Great care was exercised in making all loans. The applicant for a loan was required to state fully his financial condition, for what he intended to use the money, and the financial resources of the men he proposed to offer as endorsers, and then the directors would take the matter under advisement. They would make inquiries in the neighborhood of the person desiring the loan as to his personal habits and as to the characteristics of his wife and

family, so far as industry and economy were concerned. When the reports from these inquiries were received, the directors would hold a solemn meeting and pass upon the application for the loan.

The only tax that could be levied on the bank or its stock was provided for in the charter. By that charter the directors were required to deduct and retain in bank each year, from the dividends declared, the sum of twelve and one-half cents on each share of stock, other than that held by the State. This tax amounted to twenty-five cents on each \$100 of the stock of the bank held by individual stockholders. Compare this with the tax now levied upon banks, and it will be seen how they were favored in the early days of the State. One bank in Indianapolis, with stock valued at only \$110,000 more than the individual stock of all the branches of the State Bank, paid, in 1897, \$13,365.90 as tax, against the \$2000 paid by all of the branches of the old State bank. It must be remembered, also, that in those days the tax was to be paid out of dividends only, and if the bank failed to make money no tax was paid, while now the tax has to be paid whether any profits arise or not.

Soon after the granting of the charter, books for stock subscriptions were opened, and the work of obtaining the \$800,000 was begun. It required several months of persistent canvassing to secure the necessary subscriptions. Stock was solicited in every part of the State, and the field was gleaned several times. There were very few men in the State who possessed means to go into a banking business, and the subscriptions were all for small amounts, the largest individual subscription to the branch in Indianapolis being only \$5000, the subscriptions ranging generally from \$500 to \$1500. At last, however, the entire amount was subscribed and on November 20, 1834, the bank opened for business. The credit of the State being good, it was able to sell its bonds in London at a premium, and its bank investment proved to be a very fortunate and profitable one. By the charter it was provided that the semi-annual payments of interest on the loans made to individual stockholders, the funds which should be received in payment of such loans, and the dividends declared and paid on the stock held by the State, together with any part of

the money procured by the sale of the State bonds which should not be required to pay for the stock subscribed by the State, and all money received by the State on winding up the affairs of the bank, should constitute a Sinking Fund, reserved and set apart, principal and interest, for the purpose of paying off the State bonds when they became due. The Commissioners of the Sinking Fund were required to carefully loan out all money received from the bank, in the way of interest or dividends, after paying the interest on the State loan, so that the money received by the State should be constantly earning more money. The residue, after paying the interest on the State loan, redeeming the bonds, and paying the necessary expenses, was to form a permanent fund appropriated to the cause of common school education. So large were the profits of the bank, and so carefully were they hoarded by the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, that the school fund realized something more than \$3,000,000.

This bank was a complete monopoly. Its charter was to run for twenty-five years, and during its existence no other bank could operate in the State. No bank in the history of the country was ever more carefully conducted, or more uniformly successful in its business operations, than the State Bank of Indiana. It had hardly got into successful operation when the financial panic of 1837 struck the country, and it was compelled temporarily to suspend specie payments, but that did not operate against its credit, and its bills were taken everywhere at their face value. The panic was a bad one, and business in all parts of the country was practically wrecked. In 1842 the Legislature ordered the bank to resume specie payment, and from that date it ever stood ready to meet all demands for the redemption of its notes.

The establishment of the State Bank, and the great system of internal improvements the State had entered upon, brought an era of prosperity, but it was also to bring an aftermath of distress and ruin, the like of which had never been experienced in the State, not even during those three distressful years, 1820, 1821 and 1822. To comprehend all the misfortunes which fell upon the State a brief review of the condition of affairs throughout the whole country is necessary. The financial measures adopt-

ed and enforced under the administration of President Jackson, and the party struggle which followed, will always be a marked period in the history of the country. When President Jackson assumed the reins of government the United States Bank was on the top wave of prosperity. President Jackson deemed the bank a dangerous power and resolved to break it down. It is not necessary, at this date, to discuss the questions which arose between him and the bank, or argue as to whether he was right or wrong in his conclusions, or in the methods which he adopted. In this history we have only to deal with the financial conditions which ensued, without inquiring to what extent, if at all, they were due to President Jackson's policy. The United States Bank was the great depository of the Government funds. President Jackson determined to withdraw those deposits, and place them in a number of other banks, to be selected by himself and the Secretary of the Treasury. At that time the Secretary of the Treasury was William J. Duane, of Pennsylvania. He was directed by President Jackson to withdraw the Government deposits from the United States Bank, but he refused to do so, declaring that the laws of Congress made it obligatory to deposit the Government funds in the bank, and that they could only be removed by order of Congress. At that time the Government had no great treasury vaults in Washington and New York, as at present. The present sub-treasury scheme had not then been wrought out. The President promptly removed the Secretary of the Treasury, and appointed in his place Roger B. Taney, of Maryland, who obeyed his wishes.

The time of Jackson's Presidency was a period of great material progress in the country. The completion of the Erie canal had made the rich northern lake regions easily accessible, and immigration poured into them. Steamboat navigation on the western rivers increased rapidly. Between 1830 and 1834 the number of steamboats plying on the western waters increased from one hundred and thirty to two hundred and thirty, and their tonnage nearly doubled. As a result, the valleys of the Mississippi and its tributaries were more widely opened to settlement and commerce. Railroad building also began in earnest. In 1830 only twenty-three miles was in operation; in 1835 the

number of miles had increased to one thousand and ninety-eight; and within the next two years four hundred miles more was added. At that time the railroads had not leaped the mountains, but the agitation for them had begun in what was then the great West. Great schemes for connecting the Atlantic cities with the Mississippi were attracting attention both in this country and in Europe. Canals for the transportation of freight were being projected everywhere, and work on many of them had been commenced.

All these things naturally stimulated speculation. The fertile acres of the great West, being brought nearer to Eastern markets, rapidly rose in value. Nor was the West alone in this speedy rise in values, but the South enjoyed its full share. Cotton, which had only brought six and eight cents a pound, rose to eighteen and twenty, and cotton lands were in great demand. Never had there been such a rosy outlook for the United States. There was a rush of immigration to Ohio, Indiana, Illinois and Wisconsin and even into Missouri. Among all the Governments of the world the United States was the only one that had made any effort to pay off its national debt. This, with the rapid extension of steamboat and railroad traffic, attracted the attention of the holders of idle capital in England, of which at that time there was a vast amount. Any kind of American securities were readily bought in London and Amsterdam. Thus it was that money flowed into the United States in a large and steadily increasing stream.

It was just at this time that the Government deposits were withdrawn from the United States Bank, and turned over to a number of State institutions. These new depositories were advised by the Secretary of the Treasury to expand their accommodations to individuals, and to loan money freely. Having millions of dollars of the funds of the Government at their command, they followed the injunctions of the Secretary to the fullest extent. Money being plenty and easily borrowed added to the furor for speculation. The impression soon prevailed that the United States Bank was doomed to a final downfall, and the hope of getting deposits of Government funds greatly encouraged the establishment of new banks in the various States. In 1830 there were only three hundred and thirty State banks in the country. By 1837 they had increased to

six hundred and thirty-four, and the capital had expanded from sixty-one millions in 1830 to nearly two hundred and ninety-one millions in 1837. These were all banks of issue, and in 1830 had floated in the way of paper currency sixty-one millions, and in 1837 one hundred and forty-nine millions. Behind this vast amount of paper money there was, in 1837, only thirty-eight millions of specie. The loans of the banks had increased in proportion to their issue of paper. In 1830 their loans were two hundred millions, and in 1837, five hundred and twenty-five millions.

It is strange that so few saw the ruin that was sure to follow such a great expansion of the paper currency, backed by such a limited amount of specie. The bankers as well as the people generally seemed to be possessed with the idea that the way to make the country rich and prosperous was to establish banks, issue currency and loan money. The inflation of the currency, and of prices, went hand in hand, and was attended by a carnival of reckless debt-making. The characteristic feature of the speculative mania which seized upon the people was land buying. It was looked upon as the most promising investment, and everybody bought government land right and left. The speculator paid for the land with bank notes. These bank notes went from the land office to the deposit banks, as Government funds, and were loaned out again to the speculator, to purchase more land. Again and again the notes found their way from the banks to the land office, and back again to the banks. It was an apparently perpetual circle, the Government disposing of its lands, and after all holding nothing for them but the certificates of deposit in the banks.

To show how this speculative mania increased, the following figures will be pertinent: In 1832 the receipts from the sale of lands were only \$2,623,000; in 1834 they were \$4,857,000; in 1835, \$14,757,000, and in 1836, \$24,877,000. The speculator would buy land from the Government for \$1.25 per acre, and as soon as the purchase was completed, estimate his land at from eight to ten dollars per acre. The more land he bought and the more money he borrowed from the banks, the richer he imagined himself to be. All values were inflated enormously. The importation of foreign merchandise increased in the same enormous propor-

tions. Of those times one writer has said: "It was a universal carnival in which people seemed to vie with one another in madness of venture and expectation." As the importations increased, the receipts from customs swelled; as the Government receipts swelled, so did its deposits in the favored banks, and as the deposits enlarged the banks widened their loans. The public deposits in the thirty-five favored banks rose from \$10,223,000 on January 1, 1835, to \$41,500,000 on June 1, 1836.

The Government debt was paid, and this accumulation of so large a surplus alarmed the politicians, so Congress, in the session of 1835-6, agreed upon a method of checking the evil. Congress had never taken very kindly to the changing of the deposits from the United States Bank, many of the members believing that the influence of these favored banks, scattered throughout the country, would give the administration a dangerous control over the moneyed interests of the country. Many remedies were proposed. The bill which was finally agreed upon provided that the deposits of public funds in any one bank should not exceed three-fourths of its paid-up capital stock; that the banks should pay all drafts on the public deposits in specie if required; that no bank which failed to redeem its circulating notes in specie, or that circulated notes of a less denomination than five dollars, should receive any public deposits; and, finally, that the surplus funds at the disposal of the treasury on January 1, 1837, reserving five millions, should be deposited with the several States in proportion to their representation in the Senate and House of Representatives, to be paid back to the United States at the call of the Secretary of the Treasury. The President approved the bill, but in his next message to congress gave good reasons why he should not have done so.

Little judgment had been shown in the original distribution of the Government funds among the State banks. The distribution had served to place capital arbitrarily in different parts of the country, without much regard to the requirements of legitimate business. The new law also tended to disarrange business by taking from some banks the excess of deposits and placing it in others. As if still further to widen this disparity between the legitimate needs of business and the distribution of public funds, the

provision for the apportionment of these funds to the various States was injected. The effect of the law was to hurry on a crisis, which had to come sooner or later. On January 1, 1837, the surplus available for distribution to the States amounted to \$37,468,859. That surplus was nominally in the banks, but in reality was in the hands of borrowers. Withdrawing it from the banks simply meant to take it from business or speculation. It was impossible to make the funds again immediately available for business purposes, and it was tantamount to suddenly contracting the currency to that amount. The funds passed under the control of the several States, some of which used them for public improvements, some for educational purposes, and some for other objects. The money eventually found its way again into the channels of business, but not soon enough to avert the calamity.

The distribution among the States was not to be made all at once, but in four quarterly installments, but the banks holding the deposits had to prepare for it, and a sharp contraction of loans and discounts necessarily followed. Of this change a distinguished writer says: "The exchanges between different parts of the country were violently disturbed, so that when the first installment of the surplus was delivered to the States the bodily transportation of specie and bank notes from place to place became necessary to an extraordinary degree. Millions upon millions of dollars went on their travels, North and South, East and West, being mere freight for the time being, while the business from which the money was withdrawn gasped for breath in its struggle with a fearfully stringent money market." The same writer says:

"The first installment of the treasury surplus, amounting to \$9,367,000, due on January 1, 1837, was taken from the deposit banks amid great agony, and transferred to the several States; also the second, about April 1. But before the third fell due the general collapse came. First, the influx of capital from England ceased. The speculation which had prevailed there during the same period was brought to an end by financial embarrassments, in the summer of 1836. Discounts went up and prices down. Some banks were compelled to wind up, and three large business houses which had been heavily engaged with

America failed. English creditors called in their dues. The manufacturing industries, which, carried along by the general whirl, had produced beyond demand, had to reduce their operations, and the price of cotton fell more rapidly than it had risen. In August, 1836, it had been from fifteen to twenty cents a pound; in May, 1837, it was from eight to twelve. The cotton houses in the South went down. Nine-tenths of the merchants of Mobile suspended. New Orleans was in a state of financial anarchy. Tobacco shared the fate of cotton. The whole South was bankrupt. It became painfully apparent that the speculation in public lands had anticipated the possible progress of settlement by many years. The imagined values of great possessions in the West vanished into thin air. The names of the paper towns located in the wilderness sounded like ghastly jests. Fortunes in city lots disappeared over night. The accumulated masses of imported merchandise shrunk more than one-third in their value. Stocks of all kinds dropped with a thump. Manufacturing establishments stopped. Tens of thousands of workingmen were thrown on the street. Bankruptcies were announced by scores, by hundreds. Everybody was deeply in debt; there was a terrible scarcity of available assets. The banks, being crippled by the difficulty in collecting their dues, and by the sudden depreciation of the securities they held, could afford very little if any help. In May, 1837, while the preparatory steps for the distribution of the third surplus installment were in progress, the Dry Dock Bank, of New York, one of the deposit banks, failed. Runs on other institutions followed; and on May 10, the New York banks in a body suspended specie payments—the effect of the surplus distribution act and the heavy drafts for specie being given as the principal causes. All the banks throughout the country then adopted the same course. Confusion and distress could not have been more general.”

It is well to say here that the distribution of the fourth installment was never made. Before it fell due, it was apparent there would be no surplus to distribute, owing to the falling off of custom receipts, and receipts from land sales, and the Government was actually forced to issue several millions of treasury notes to meet its current expenses. The administration finally became alarmed at the

swelling flood of paper money and the President sought means to stop the exchanging of the public lands into "inconvertible paper." He caused a resolution to be introduced into the Senate providing that nothing but specie should be received for public lands. The resolution failed, but President Jackson, immediately upon the adjournment of Congress, in opposition to the advice of a majority of his cabinet, issued his famous specie circular. It was an instruction to the land officers to receive nothing but gold and silver in payment for public land, making an exception in favor of actual settlers. This awakened a storm of protest both from the speculators and the banks. Senator Benton, in speaking of it in the Senate, said that the circular overtook tens of millions of paper money on its way to the land offices. The order created an extraordinary demand for specie. It drew specie from the great centers of commerce where it was needed to uphold the credit of the banks which had issued paper money, and transferred it to the wilderness of the West. It was followed by a general collapse of banks.

Indiana suffered, as did all the other States, from the crisis. Here internal improvements and individual speculation had gone hand in hand in inflating prices. The State had its share of the inflated currency, but the bills of the State bank were good; they were redeemable in specie, and were so redeemed whenever presented, and they took rank with the best paper money of the country. The State had borrowed large sums in the East to carry on its scheme of canal, turnpike and railroad building. Thus, for a while, there was an abundance of sound money, and the great disbursements on the public works brought forth an era of prosperity, and also of speculation. The speculative mania, and the policy of the contractors in bringing into Indiana depreciated currency from Michigan and other States, soon drove the good money into hiding. Good money, then, as it ever has been, was "cowardly," and soon took flight before the avalanche of depreciated currency.

By 1839 the State had got into such a financial condition that it could not meet its bills as they fell due, and a remedy was sought. The money borrowed from the East had been expended, yet the canals, railroads and pikes were not finished, and they were, like the Horse Leech's

daughter, constantly crying, "give, give." Money matters in the East had assumed a darkening aspect, and the State could borrow no more on anything like favorable terms. The people of Indiana had speculated, and piled mortgage upon mortgage on their properties, in the faith that the State would complete its great system of internal improvements, and that a heavy tide of immigration would set in. The State bank was very chary of loaning money, and would only loan small amounts, and those must be well secured. The people could get no money; the State could get none. As a measure of temporary relief the Legislature authorized the issue of State scrip to the amount of a million and a half dollars. This scrip was to bear six per cent. interest and be receivable for taxes.

The scrip was issued in bills of the denomination of five and fifty dollars, and being printed on red paper, soon became known under the name of "Red Dog" currency. With this scrip the State undertook to discharge its most pressing necessities. At first the scrip was well received by the people, but as its volume increased, and its day of redemption began to look further in the future, its value went down, until it was often quoted at forty cents on the dollar, and it seldom reached a higher figure than fifty cents. Most of it was paid out by the State in the central and northern sections, and those sections had much more of it than could be used in paying State taxes. Some speculative individuals took advantage of this, and bought up the scrip in the central and northern sections for forty and fifty cents on the dollar, and took it to the southern Counties, where not much of it was afloat, and sold it to those who had taxes to pay for eighty and eighty-five cents on the dollar, thus netting a snug sum on the right side of their bank account. Others who had faith in the ultimate prosperity of the State purchased and held it, and eventually, before it was all redeemed, it rose to be worth two dollars for one, the accrued interest equalling the principal.

The issue of scrip by the State led to a still further inflation of the currency. Merchants, millers, plank road companies, and eventually, the contractors on the public works, all went into the business of making paper money. The scrip issued by merchants and millers was generally made payable in merchandise, and much of it was floated.

That issued by plank road companies, being based on the receipts for toll, was accepted at par everywhere, and was eventually all redeemed. This private scrip was issued in bills as low as twenty-five cents, the highest being for three dollars. It was mostly printed on blue paper, and was soon derisively styled "Blue Pup," to distinguish it from the "Red Dog" of the State.

Under its charter the State bank was a complete monopoly, and no other bank could have been established even had there been the money to invest in such an enterprise. The good money had been driven into hiding and only the depreciated currency could be had, and even that grew scarce. Business man after business man went down in the crash, and as most of the merchants were large purchasers of farm products, they were owing large sums to the farmers, and the failures of the merchants pulled down the farmers, and the court calendars were mainly taken up with mortgage foreclosures. About the only active men were the sheriffs, endeavoring to find buyers for property under foreclosure. But all things must have an end, and after awhile the tide in Indiana once more turned. Public confidence was restored in the East; the State compromised with its creditors, turning over its unfinished public works to private companies; the depreciated currency began to disappear, and with its disappearance, gold, silver and State bank notes began to come out from their long hiding places. But Indiana had another siege or two to undergo before a perfectly reliable currency was established, and the last of the depreciated notes disappeared.

So successful was the State bank, and so regular and large were the dividends it was able to declare, that a feeling of hostility, engineered and promoted by politicians, developed. This opposition was very shrewdly nursed, and was first publicly displayed in the constitutional convention of 1850. In that convention a banking clause was introduced providing for a general banking law, and another which forbade the State from being a stockholder in any banking institution. The force of these two provisions was not seen at first, but the general banking clause afterward brought a harvest of woe. The new constitution permitted the establishment of a bank with branches, outside of the general law. Joseph A. Wright, who was then Governor

of the State, was very bitter in his opposition to any banks of issue, and used all his great influence against them. The charter of the State bank did not expire until 1859, but as early as 1854 the politicians actively began systematic efforts to prevent its renewal. Governor Wright set himself against any charter. It soon became evident that the hostility to a renewal was so great that the days of the State bank were numbered, and then the politicians developed their full plan, which was to secure a charter for a new bank under their control. They were not bankers, and did not intend to go into the banking business, but they saw an opening to make money by securing a charter and then selling it out to the real bankers of the State, at a bonus or premium.

At the session of the Legislature in 1853 a free bank law was passed, and in 1855 a charter was given to the Bank of the State of Indiana. Governor Wright vetoed both of these bills, but they were again passed, after a good deal of intriguing. The bill to charter the Bank of the State passed in the closing hours of the session of the Senate, and when that body adjourned the Governor, who was present, ascended the platform and made a very bitter speech against the bill, charging that it had been passed by corruption and fraud. The speech created the greatest excitement throughout the State. The Governor determined, if possible, to destroy the bank, and on the adjournment of the Legislature brought suit against those to whom the charter had been granted, to prevent the organization of the bank, but the court decided against him, and he appealed to the Supreme Court, which affirmed the decision. At the meeting of the Legislature in 1857 he renewed the fight, and in his message he used the following language:

"The means and appliances brought to bear to secure the passage of this charter would, if exposed to the public gaze, exhibit the nakedest page of fraud and corruption that ever disgraced the Legislature of any State. While men of pure and honorable sentiment were led into its support in the belief that the approaching close of the existing bank required them thus early to provide a successor, others supported it upon promise of stock, equivalents in money, or pledges as to the location of certain branches. To make up the constitutional vote in its favor the names

of members were recorded on its passage who were at the moment absent, and many miles distant from the capital."

This message caused the appointment of a committee to investigate the matter, and an exhaustive investigation followed. A majority of the committee reported that many dishonorable things had been resorted to by the speculators who engineered the passage of the bill, and recommended that the charter be revoked. The investigation, however, failed of results. When the stock books were opened a few men were ready to subscribe all the stock, and within a very few hours all was taken. The men who had subscribed the stock were not practical bankers, and after subscribing for the stock were somewhat in the condition of the man who drew the white elephant. They had the charter, and had subscribed for the stock, but had neither the experience nor the actual capital to do a successful banking business, and finally negotiations were opened with the old bank, and an offer was made to purchase the branches of the old bank. This was finally consented to, provided Hugh McCulloch, President of the branch at Fort Wayne, should be made President of the Bank of the State. This was done and the bank entered upon a career of high honor. Two years afterward another great financial panic swept over the country, induced by the failure of the Ohio Trust Company. This company was one of the great financial institutions of the country, and the conduct of its affairs at the home office in Cincinnati was of the highest character, but it was wrecked by its New York agent. That officer had entered, without the knowledge of the home institution, upon many schemes of wild speculation, and suddenly, without warning, the great financial institution collapsed.

Confidence was at once destroyed throughout the country, and bank after bank was compelled to close its doors until every bank in the East, except the Chemical, of New York, suspended, and all in the West except the Bank of the State of Indiana and the Bank of Kentucky, did likewise. The Indiana bank weathered the storm magnificently. It never suspended specie payment for a day, but redeemed its notes as fast as they were offered. Many of the branches of the bank of Kentucky were at remote points from the railroads, and could not be readily reached

by the brokers, but those of Indiana were of easy access and holders of their bills at once rushed for the specie. Every private bank in the State, except two at Indianapolis and one at Fort Wayne, fell in the panic. Gold was at a premium, and New York exchange was difficult to obtain. The Bank of the State sold exchange on New York, often getting \$125 premium on a draft for \$1000. The Bank of the State began business in 1857 and continued successfully until the introduction of the National banks. Most of the branches became National banks. In 1865 the Legislature authorized it to wind up its business, and soon it was a thing of the past.

In 1850 the people of the State decided to have a new constitution and delegates were elected to a convention to frame such an instrument. This body assembled at Indianapolis and finished its labors in 1851. The constitution of 1816 had provided that there should not be established or incorporated in the State any bank or banking company, or moneyed institution for the purpose of issuing bills of credit, or bills payable to order or bearer, except a State bank and its branches, which might be chartered by the General Assembly. The constitution also provided that in the establishment of such branches, a certain amount of specie must be paid in by the individual stockholders. The convention of 1850 destroyed this provision of the constitution of 1816, and gave authority to the General Assembly to pass a general banking law. Within less than half a dozen years the State was fairly deluged with practically worthless currency, issued under the provisions of a general banking law passed by the General Assembly. Ohio, Michigan and others of the neighboring States had been badly burned by the free banking system, but their experience was as nothing—the people of Indiana would not be satisfied without experiencing the burning process, so they threw the doors wide open, and banks sprang up everywhere, on the hill tops, in the valleys, and among the swamps. Many of them had no banking house or actual place of business. They made no pretensions to being banks of deposit, their only mission being to issue and float notes or bills.

A few men would get together, invest a few thousand dollars in the depreciated bonds of some far away mu-

nicipality, deposit them with the Auditor of State, and receive authority to enter upon the manufacture of paper money. They would issue bills to an amount two or three times greater than the value of the securities deposited, put them in circulation, and then bank, officers and directors would disappear, leaving the holder of the notes to mourn their disappearance. The notes only passed at a discount, and that discount changed almost daily, so that the bill worth eighty cents today might only bring sixty tomorrow. This money soon received the name of "wild-cat," and by that term is still known. Several efforts were made by those who had honestly gone into this new banking scheme to stem the tide and weed out the worthless banks, but nothing of any moment was accomplished.

A thousand or two of cash only was required to start a bank in those halcyon days of paper currency. All that was needed was enough to pay for engraving the bills. An embryo banker would go to New York with one or two thousand dollars and order an engraver to make a plate and print him \$50,000 in bills. He would then visit a broker and negotiate for \$50,000 worth of the bonds of some State. The next step was to send the printed bills to the State Auditor of Indiana, and instruct the broker to forward to the same place the bonds negotiated for, to be paid for on receipt at the Auditor's office. The Auditor would countersign the new money, pay for the bonds, and a new bank would be set going, and the enterprising banker would receive the interest on the \$50,000 worth of bonds. Thus one man, with \$10,000 in money, bought bonds and established banks until he had in circulation \$600,000 of paper, and was drawing interest on that amount of bonds. When the crash came the floating bills were bought up at a large discount, presented to the Auditor of State, and the bonds taken up. History hardly furnishes a parallel.

This flood of money not only produced a season of the most reckless speculation, which proved a great injury to the State, but the notes of all the banks were soon held at a discount, and thousands of honest people suffered thereby. Every merchant or business man had to provide for himself a periodical known as a "Bank Note Reporter," in which the rates of discount on the bills of the various banks were daily given. Laboring men and farmers suffered se-

verely through the fluctuations in the value of these notes. They would receive a note at a discount of from five to fifteen per cent and before they could use it, the discount would be largely increased, or the bank suspended. This inflation of paper money also induced merchants, millers and other traders to resort once more to the issue of "shin-plasters," and as many of the merchants and others who issued these smaller notes became bankrupt, through the failure of some of the free banks, many thousands of dollars were lost by the people who had accepted the "shin-plasters" as money. The banks failed, one after another, and as their notes had driven all the good currency from the State, the result was very disastrous. Business was checked at once, all building stopped, new enterprises were smothered and old ones crippled. Nobody would take the Free Bank money and as it was all there was in the State, nobody could pay debts. Since the establishment of the National banks there have been no banks of issue in the State, other than those authorized by the national law, but the State now has a very careful law governing banks of deposit. Under this law five or more persons may form themselves into a corporation as a bank of discount and deposit, with certain rights and powers. The bank must have a capital stock of at least \$25,000, which must be divided into shares of \$100 each. No person can be a director in such bank unless he is the owner of at least five shares of the stock. The capital stock may be increased or reduced at the pleasure of the bank, upon giving a certain specified notice. The stockholders are liable for all the debts and contracts of the bank. Such banks are authorized to own and hold real estate under certain restrictions. The President and Directors are required to file an annual sworn statement of the financial condition of the bank and cause the same to be printed in some newspaper. The Auditor of State has the authority, through some designated person, to examine into the condition and affairs of all such banks as often as he may deem it necessary.

Savings banks may also be organized. There cannot be less than seven nor more than twenty-one stockholders and they must have been residents of the County where they reside at the time of organizing the bank for at least five years, and must be owners of unincumbered real estate in

the County worth at least \$5000. The law provides how the money deposited in such savings banks shall be invested. In addition to these banks the State has authorized the organization of "Building and Loan Associations" and hundreds of thousands of dollars have been invested therein. In 1893 the Legislature enacted a law establishing Trust Companies. These companies do not do a general banking business, but they receive deposits, make investments and act as administrators of estates and execute bonds.

As a fitting close to a chapter on the financial history of the State it is well to give a brief sketch of some of the distinguished bankers of Indiana, who have taken high rank among the financiers of the Nation.

J. F. D. LANIER.

Few men, if any, have reflected more honor upon Indiana than J. F. D. Lanier, though not a native of the State. Through a long life he was regarded as one of the ablest financiers of the country. On two different occasions, at the solicitation of the Government, he visited the moneyed centers of Europe to induce the capitalists of the old world to invest in our Government securities, and both times met with great success. In the dark days of the Union, when gold had mounted up until it was almost unpurchasable with our currency; when it looked as if the South might eventually wear out the courage and endurance of the North, and the Government was struggling everywhere to secure the means whereby the enormous expenses of prosecuting the war might be met, bonds were offered on the market. They found a ready sale in this country, but foreign capitalists were afraid of them. In 1865, as the war was drawing rapidly to a close, Mr. Lanier was about to visit Europe. The Secretary of the Treasury requested him to act on behalf of the Government, in explaining to the moneyed men of England and the continent the debt of the United States, and its resources. On his arrival at Frankfort-on-the-Maine, he was invited to address a meeting of bankers and capitalists. He did so, setting forth the great resources of the United States in such a strong and convincing light that there was no longer any hesitancy on their part in investing in our bonds. His address was print

ed in many English and German journals and widely circulated. For the ability thus displayed, and the success attending his efforts, Mr. Lanier received the thanks of the Government.

Three years later he was again requested by the Secretary of the Treasury to speak for the Government abroad, in aid of an effort to float a five per cent. bond, and equal success attended his efforts. His first trip to Europe was in behalf of the State of Indiana. In 1847 the State of Indiana was practically bankrupt. She had burdened herself with a large debt for the purpose of carrying out a great scheme of internal improvements, and for several years had defaulted the interest on her bonds. By this course her credit had been destroyed and the prosperity of the State seriously checked. Most of the bonds were held in Europe, and the holders were clamorous for the payment of the interest, and the State was out of funds. The Legislature passed an act for the settlement of the debt on a new basis. Mr. Lanier was selected to proceed to Europe and lay the proposition before the bondholders. He was supplied with the new bonds, or certificates of State stock, with which to take up the old bonds, and was given the power to transfer the Wabash and Erie canal, and the lands belonging to the State, to the Trustees selected for that purpose. The certificates of State stock were all duly signed, but the amounts and names of parties were left blank to be filled by Mr. Lanier. His mission was successful, and the load of debt was lifted in such a way that Indiana at once entered upon an era of prosperity. In 1863, when the Legislature failed to make an appropriation to meet the interest upon those bonds, and the Auditor and Treasurer of State held they could pay out no money on that account without an appropriation, Mr. Lanier, in connection with his banking partners, stepped forward and advanced several hundred thousand dollars, thereby saving the credit of the State once more.

Mr. Lanier was born in Washington, North Carolina, November 22, 1800. His ancestors were Huguenots who fled from France on the revocation of the edict of Nantes. By intermarriage they became connected with the Washington family. One ancestor married a sister of John Washington, the first of the family to come to America, while another

married a sister of Mary, the mother of George. Not long after Mr. Lanier's birth his father moved to Kentucky, and then to Ohio. His grandfather fought with General Wayne on the Maumee, and his father, during the war of 1812, commanded at Fort Wayne. In later years Mr. Lanier himself became very closely identified with the prosperity of this same Fort Wayne. While at Eaton young Lanier attended for a short time the village school, and also clerked in a store. A little later he attended for eighteen months an academy at Newport, Kentucky. In 1817 his father made another move, this time to Madison, Indiana. Here the elder Lanier was unsuccessful in business and died insolvent, but his son, afterward, from his own accumulations, paid all the debts in full.

At Madison Mr. Lanier entered upon the study of law, finally graduating at Transylvania Law School, in Kentucky. He soon commanded a good practice, and his income from that was supplemented by receiving, in 1824, the appointment of Assistant Clerk of the House of Representatives, a position he held for three years, when he was made Principal Clerk. His salary was \$3.50 per day.

In 1834, when the State Bank was organized, he became interested in that institution, being the largest individual stockholder. He was made president of the Madison branch. In 1837, when the Government called for the transfer of a large per cent. of the Government funds, then held by the banks, to Washington, Mr. Lanier was the selected agent of the State Bank to take \$80,000 in gold to Washington. He went by steamer to Wheeling, and from there across the mountains alone in a stage coach chartered for the purpose. In 1849 he went to New York and formed a partnership with Richard H. Winslow, for the purpose of engaging extensively in railroad building, and to do a general banking business. At that time there were only about six hundred miles of railroads in the West, and they were all poorly constructed and equipped. The firm began offering bonds of railroads on the New York market, the first bonds of that character ever offered being those of the Madison & Indianapolis Railroad. They frequently negotiated a million dollars of bonds daily. In six years, from 1849 to 1854, they negotiated the bonds to build more than ten thousand miles of road. In 1859 the Pittsburg, Fort

Wayne & Chicago road, in whose building the firm of Winslow & Lanier had been largely instrumental, went down in the financial storm which swept over the country. Mr. Lanier at once undertook the work of reorganizing the road and carried it through so successfully that it soon became one of the great roads of the country. Mr. Lanier never lost his interest in Indiana, and his banking house has been for years the fiscal agent of the State, as well as of many of the counties and cities.

HUGH M'CULLOCH.

Near the top of the long roll of able financiers produced by this country stands the name of Hugh McCulloch, of Indiana. He earned the right to have his name linked with those of Hamilton and Gallatin. He not only conducted great banking enterprises successfully, and with distinguished honor to himself and the country, but stands as the only man America has produced who was three times called to the head of the Treasury Department of the Government, and by as many different Presidents. Hugh McCulloch was born in Kennebunk, Maine, December 7, 1808. He received his education in the schools of that place, and at Bowdoin College. He did not graduate, however, being compelled by failing health to leave college. He taught school for a while, and then studied law. In 1833 he concluded to try for his fortune in the growing West. When he began his travels he had no definite notion of where he would make his new home, but concluded to leave that to circumstances. He stopped, for a few days, at Cincinnati, and there met a citizen of Indiana, who gave him such glowing accounts of the future prospects of the State that he determined to cast his lot in with the young and vigorous commonwealth. The State was then about to enter upon its great undertaking of building railroads and canals.

He chose Madison as his home. It was then the largest and wealthiest town in the State, having a population full of enterprise and energy. He did not remain there very long, however, concluding to try his fortunes in the northern part of the State. After studying carefully the prospects of each of the embryonic cities in Northern Indiana, he

made a choice of Fort Wayne. When he first settled at that place he designed entering the practice of law, but the State Bank of Indiana had but recently been chartered, and a branch was to be established at Fort Wayne, and with that institution he became identified. From that time until 1865 he was intimately connected with the banking interests of the State. He became president of the Fort Wayne branch of the State Bank, and as such had to visit Indianapolis very frequently. In those days the journey had to be made on horseback, and was considered a journey, indeed.

When the charter of the State Bank of Indiana was about to expire, and a charter had been obtained for the Bank of the State of Indiana, and its incorporators proposed to purchase the branches of the old State Bank, they found they could make the purchase only on the condition that Mr. McCulloch should be made President of the Bank of the State. This was finally agreed to, and under his management the new bank became a worthy successor of the old. It soon became known as one of the soundest financial institutions in the country. In 1862, when Congress was considering the bill creating the national banking system, Mr. McCulloch visited Washington to oppose the passage of the bill. He was naturally very proud of the great moneyed institution of which he was the head, and he did not take kindly to any law which would interfere with it. He knew that his bank was perfectly solvent, and able to meet all its obligations, notwithstanding the stringency produced by the war, which was then raging in all its fury. The bill became a law, however, early in the next March.

About that time Mr. McCulloch was again in Washington. He was making an eastern trip with his wife, and visited Washington on his way. While there he one day passed through the Treasury building. He was not personally acquainted with Secretary Chase, but as he was passing his door, thought he would leave his card for the Secretary. Drawing one from his pocket he handed it to an attendant and walked on. That evening he and his wife left Washington. They visited Baltimore, Philadelphia and New York, and finally reached Plattsburg. There Mr. McCulloch found some letters and telegrams awaiting him which had been following him around. To his utter sur-

prise one of them was an urgent request from Secretary Chase to return at once to Washington and accept the office of Comptroller of the Currency, a new office created by the national banking law. By this time his views regarding the necessity of such a law had undergone a marked change. He was still wedded to his bank, and believed it could successfully weather any storm that might arise, but he saw the necessity of the Government providing the people with a safe currency to take the place of the gold and silver, and to meet the demands not only of the nation but of commerce.

To accept the offered position meant a large pecuniary loss to him, as he would have to sever his connection with the bank of which he was the head. After some hesitation he concluded to accept the offer and give to the Government his wide experience. He took the place and worked out the details of getting the new system into successful operation. His name at the head of the new system at once made friends for it among the moneyed men of the country, for he was favorably known to all of them. He served in the office until March, 1865, when, on the resignation of William Pitt Fessenden, Secretary of the Treasury, President Lincoln placed him at the head of the Treasury Department. Mr. Lincoln was assassinated a month later, and President Johnson retained Mr. McCulloch in his cabinet.

Mr. McCulloch served as Secretary of the Treasury until March, 1869. He then engaged in banking in New York and London. In 1884, on the retirement from the Treasury Department of Mr. Gresham, President Arthur called Mr. McCulloch again to its head, notwithstanding he had then reached the advanced age of seventy-six years. Mr. McCulloch wrote a good deal on financial questions, and his writings are regarded as authority.

CHAPTER XVII.

BENEVOLENT INSTITUTIONS.

The people of Indiana early felt the importance of providing liberally for the unfortunate of the State, and the first constitution contained the following provision regulating the duty of the General Assembly: "To provide one or more farms to be an asylum for those persons, who, by reason of age, infirmity, or other misfortunes, may have a claim upon the aid and beneficence of society; on such principles, that such persons may therein find employment and every reasonable comfort, and lose, by their usefulness, the degrading sense of dependence." Under this provision the aged and infirm, as well as the unfortunate, were to be cared for, and in such a way as to lose the feeling that they were being supported by charity. The framers of the constitution of 1850 saw fit to leave out the provision for the aged and infirm, but would have done well had they embodied it in the organic law. Of course in 1816, when the first constitution was adopted, and the population of Indiana numbered but a few thousands, there were few unfortunates to be cared for by the State. It is probable that at that time there was not in Indiana a deaf and dumb person, nor were there half a dozen blind or insane, but the framers of the constitution looked forward to a time when there would be many of all those classes, and they did not stop at giving the Legislature the right to make provision for their care, but they made it a solemn duty to do so. It was not for some years, however, that the first steps in the direction of carrying out this mandate were taken.

For several years the only available shelter for the insane of the State was in the County pauper houses, and the number of such unfortunates was rapidly growing. The attention of the Legislature had been called to this subject by the press and by charitable persons, but it was not until 1839 that much impression was made, and then the agitation began to produce effect. The State was poor, and that was used by the members of the Legislature as an excuse for not carrying out the mandate of the constitution. In 1842 the Legislature took the first step. It was not much of a step, but it was a beginning. It directed the Governor to gather such information as to the care and treatment of the insane as he could from some of the older States. He was a large-hearted, philanthropic man, and he set about his work judiciously, and had his report ready for the Legislature at its next session. At the same session, Dr. John Evans, a former resident of Indiana, but then of Chicago, was invited to address the General Assembly on the subject. He had made a study of mental diseases and was an authority regarding them. The report of the Governor and the address of Dr. Evans speedily brought forth fruit, and a system of public charities was introduced eminently creditable to the young State, and which has developed with its growth into one of the most magnificent systems in the world.

Early in February, 1843, the Governor was instructed by the Legislature to procure plans and suggestions for buildings from the superintendents of hospitals for the insane in the other States, to be submitted to the General Assembly at its next session. This he did, and the Legislature determined to erect a hospital at Indianapolis, and to provide the funds for that purpose a special tax was levied. In 1845 a commission was appointed to select a site for the proposed buildings, which was done, the site chosen being an elevated tract of land west of Indianapolis. In 1846 the Commissioners were instructed to begin the erection of the buildings. Work was begun at once, and 1847 witnessed the completion of the first building, at a cost of \$75,000. From time to time additions to this building have been erected, until now the various buildings of this central hospital for the insane cover several acres. The number of insane rapidly increased and the county houses were again

filling up with them. They could not be treated in such places, nor could they be well cared for, and by 1875, notwithstanding large additions had been made to the hospital, it was still entirely inadequate to the needs of the State, and it was found necessary to erect additional buildings.

A strong effort was made to secure the erection of the proposed new buildings in some other city, stimulated by local interest and supported by the claim that it was not well for the insane that so many of them should be kept together. The Legislature, however, finally determined to add to the hospital already established, and several hundred thousand dollars was appropriated for that purpose. Within the next two years a magnificent structure was erected with all the modern improvements and conveniences. This building was designed especially for the female patients. It is admitted to be one of the best buildings for its purpose in the United States. All these additions did not keep pace with the rapidly growing insane population, and it was felt, also, that especial provision should be made for the incurably insane. Before that, when a patient was pronounced incurable the hospital authorities could no longer care for him, and had to return him to his friends, or to the authorities of his County. The result was that almost every poor asylum of the State contained one or more of these incurables. The hospital at Indianapolis was large enough to accommodate fifteen hundred patients, but the statistics disclosed that more than that number were confined in the County houses, or in private homes.

By 1881 the necessity of making large additional provision for these unfortunates became imperative, and the Legislature resolved to erect three new hospitals, located at different points in the State. Evansville, Logansport and Richmond were selected as the sites of the new institutions.

When the first tax was levied to provide the funds for the erection of an insane hospital, a small tax was also levied for the erection of an institution for the education of the deaf and dumb. William Willard, a deaf mute, had opened, in 1843, at Indianapolis, a private school for the education of the deaf and dumb, and started with sixteen

pils. It was not right that such an enterprise, which properly appertains to the State, should be left to private citizens, and as it was enjoined by the constitution that the Legislature should do this work, that body, in 1844, acquired the school of Mr. Willard, and carried it on in a rented building until a suitable building could be erected. In 1846 thirty acres of land, just east of Indianapolis, was purchased and the erection of a building arranged for. A hundred acres was shortly added to the original purchase. The building was not begun until 1849 and was completed in 1850, at a cost of \$30,000. It has been several times enlarged. A competent corps of teachers is employed and the institution ranks as one of the best in the country.

During the winter of 1844-5 some of the benevolent citizens of Indianapolis induced Mr. William H. Churchman, teacher of the blind, to visit the city, during the session of the Legislature, and give exhibitions with his class, which proved so successful in every way that the Legislature at once levied a tax for the purpose of erecting a suitable building for the use of the blind of the State. A commission was appointed to select a site and to make temporary provision for the school. The school was opened in a rented building, and it was not until 1848 that the erection of a State building was begun. It was completed in 1850, and the school has flourished ever since.

For many years the State was somewhat unfortunate with its great benevolent enterprises, through the influence of party politics. Even in their early history a number of scandals in the institutions, of one kind and another, injured the fair name of the State. At one time during the administration of Governor Willard, owing to the failure of the Legislature to make the necessary appropriations, the institutions were closed, and the blind, the deaf mutes and the insane were sent back to their various Counties, where they were kept two years. The Legislature of 1863 failed to make appropriations for their support, but Governor Morton borrowed the money to keep them in operation. After the war partisan influences grew stronger than before in the government of the institutions, and abuses multiplied. This was especially the case with the hospital for the Insane. Repeated efforts were made to get the institutions out of political control, but all failed.

At one time the appointing power for the Board of Trustees would be exercised by the Legislature, and then it would be given to the Governor, but when the Governor would be of one party faith, and the Legislature of another, the General Assembly would legislate out of office the appointees of the Governor and elect members of its own party. In 1887 an investigation of the abuses at the Insane Hospital, by a committee of the Legislature, awakened such widespread attention among the people, that a general demand arose for a change in the system of management, but it was not until 1895 that it was finally perfected.

Now the Board of Trustees must be made up of members of the dominant political parties, and the trustees are appointed by the Governor. This does not correct all the abuses, but it has minimized them. In the treatment of the insane great advancement has been made. The old methods of restraint and punishment have been done away with. The strait-jacket and the "crib," and like instruments of torture, have been abolished, and kindness and diversion for the mind have taken their place. The number of insane is constantly increasing, and the cost of maintaining the hospitals for their treatment grows each year, but the burdens thus placed upon the people are cheerfully borne. Those declared to be incurable are now cared for at the Logansport hospital.

But these are not all the benevolences of the State. Soon after the close of the war, the gratitude of the people to those who had given their lives in the service of the country led the Legislature to make provision for the care and education of the orphans of soldiers, and near Knightstown, in Henry County, a beautiful tract of land was purchased and suitable buildings erected. From time to time additional appropriations have been voted for the enlargement of the buildings, and a liberal allowance is made for the maintenance of the school. The children are given the ground-work of a good English education, and at the same time taught some useful employment.

Some years ago the question of educating feeble-minded children began to be agitated. The experiment had been tried in some of the States with a varying degree of success, and Indiana took up the matter, attaching the school

that of the soldiers' orphans at Knightstown. This, however, did not work satisfactorily. In the winter of 1886 the buildings at Knightstown were destroyed by fire, and in considering the question of rebuilding them, the opportunity came for a division of the two schools. Ft. Wayne had made a liberal offer for the establishment of the feeble-minded school in that city, and in 1887 the Legislature appropriated a large sum and very large and handsome buildings have been erected. The school is operated on a system calculated to develop and strengthen the mind, and while study is one of the features, amusements and work of various kinds are furnished to relieve the mental strain and develop the faculties.

CHAPTER XVIII.

PRISONS AND REFORMATORIES.

The founders of the State Government, in framing the constitution, declared that "The penal code shall be founded on the principle of reformation, and not of vindictive justice." It was a wise provision, and in the main the Legislature in enacting laws has carried it out, but the institutions where reformation could best be worked—the prisons—were for many years neglected. In framing the penal laws the Legislature, if anything, has been too lax, and has provided so many loopholes that the ends of justice are too easily thwarted, but in the management of the prisons reformation was long lost sight of. Soon after the inauguration of the State Government the erection of a prison was found absolutely necessary, and such an institution was located at Jeffersonville, in Clark County. It was opened for the reception of prisoners in 1822, and for many years it was about the worst conducted prison on the continent, a disgrace to the State and an outrage on humanity. It was conducted under the old, barbarous lease system, that is still in vogue in some of the Southern States. The prisoners were treated as brutes, starved, driven, flogged, inhumanly punished in a hundred ways. The lessee paid a stipulated price to the State and worked the prisoners as he pleased, treating them as he or his brutal foremen or overseers saw fit, and there was no redress. There was no voice to be lifted in behalf of the prisoners; they were not permitted to tell of the outrages perpetrated upon them, and they remained helpless in the hands of inhuman keepers. For many years it was the only prison in the State, and

young and old, males and females, the first offender and the hardened criminal, were sent there and huddled together, until the prison, instead of being a place for the reformation of the vicious, became nothing but a moral pest house, a school for the graduation of criminals. This system of lesseeship continued until 1856, when the outcry against it became so great that the State took the prison under its direct control.

While it was governed by lessees the prisoners were engaged in work outside of the prison walls, and so outrageous was their conduct at times that the citizens of Jeffersonville frequently threatened to resort to force to compel the keeping of the prisoners within the precincts of the penitentiary. The same system of outdoor work was followed for a while under the wardens, but at last patience was exhausted, and the citizens of Jeffersonville rebelled, and at one time, with arms, drove the prisoners inside the gates. In 1847 a new prison was erected, on the present site. So far as humanity was concerned the change from lessees to wardens was little or no improvement. The same barbarous punishments were maintained. During the years that both male and female prisoners were confined in the prison at Jeffersonville, the greatest abuses prevailed. The horrors of those days, if put in print, would still awaken the greatest indignation. Young girls and young boys, sent to prison for slight offenses, were hardened and brutalized long before the expiration of their terms, and were released so depraved that after-reformation was impossible. The female prisoners were compelled to yield to the bestial lusts of the officers and guards. From almost the very inception of the Warden plan of government politicians began to look upon the prison as a great political machine, and it was governed accordingly, and, as a consequence, was always a hot-bed of political scandals. One legislative investigation after another was made, and either great abuses were found to exist, or the partisan bias of the investigating committees converted the prison into a sort of paradise. Peculations by the officers in control were frequently laid bare, while cruelty in the government of the convicts was established beyond the power of controverting. Yet, in face of all the facts thus disclosed, the Legislature, year after year, clung tenaciously to the idea

of party control, and Directors and Wardens were named as a reward for party purposes.

At last the horrors and abuses became so great that the humanity of the State revolted, and a demand was made for a separation of the prisons. The Legislature was induced to take some steps for the reformation of vicious boys, and to remove from the penitentiary those of tender years, who had been sent there for minor offenses. By this time, too, the contract system of letting out the labor of the prisoners had been adopted, and this worked some amelioration of the condition of the convicts, but it was still far from the basic idea of reformation. In 1867 the Legislature provided for the purchase of a farm and the erection of a Reform School for boys. This idea had been growing in the minds of the people for some years. The press and the pulpit had advocated it, but the demands made upon the people by the war of the rebellion had prevented any definite action until 1867. The people of the State had hardly returned to peaceful avocations before the question was again taken up by the press and the pulpit, and Governor Conrad Baker, a man of large heart, urged it upon the Legislature, as he did also the matter of providing a separate prison for women. At that time the State was prosperous, and notwithstanding the heavy load of debt which had been placed on the people by the war, the Legislature actively took hold of the matter.

The principle to underly the school was laid broad and deep, reformation, and not punishment, being the great object. A home was to be provided, where manual labor, good training, and a primary education were to go hand in hand with the work of reformation. This institution was located near the pretty little village of Plainfield, in Hendricks County, and work was at once begun on the necessary buildings. The first building was completed and made ready for the reception of inmates by the 1st of January, 1868. Several boys who were confined in the prison at Jeffersonville were at once transferred to the new institution.

Luckily for it, and for the good name of the State, this great reform institution has been kept measurably free from party control. It is operated on the family plan, with a competent corps of teachers and attendants. Boys under sixteen, who are incorrigible, may be sent to this House of

Refuge. The complaint may be made by the parent, or guardian, or by any citizen. Township Trustees, by showing to the proper court that a boy under sixteen is destitute of a home, or of means of livelihood, and is in danger of becoming immoral or vicious, may have such boy committed to the House of Refuge. When a boy under sixteen is charged before the grand jury with a crime, the jury can, instead of returning an indictment against him, make the proper showing before the Judge and have the boy committed to the House. Every commitment must run until the boy reaches the age of twenty-one years. While there he must receive a fair English education and be taught some useful avocation. The school has been a success from the very beginning. It is under the charge of a Superintendent.

In 1869 an appropriation was made by the General Assembly for the erection of a prison for women, and connected therewith a Reformatory for Girls. This institution is located at Indianapolis, and ever since its establishment has been wholly under the management of women. To the penal part of the institution must be sent all females convicted of a violation of the State laws. To the reformatory may be sent incorrigible girls under the age of fifteen, and girls under that age convicted of crime. Each commitment must run until the girl attains the age of eighteen. Like the boys at Plainfield the girls are instructed in the rudiments of an English education, and taught many kinds of employment. When girls show evidence of reformation every effort is made by the management to procure them good homes. The institution is under the charge of a Superintendent.

By 1860 the penitentiary at Jeffersonville had become too small for the increasing number of convicts, and it being deemed better to have more prisons than to have so many convicts in one institution, another penitentiary was located at Michigan City, Laporte County. As has been said, partisan control long kept back anything like adequate reform in the management of the prisons. The first step in this direction by the Legislature was a law providing for a credit for good conduct, in the reduction of the terms of the prisoners. By this law a prisoner is entitled to a reduction of one day for each month of good behavior for the first year, two days per month for the second, and

adding one day per month each year during the term for which he was sentenced. This law has resulted in great improvement in the conduct of the prisoners. One idea seemed to be always prevalent with legislators, and that was to make the work of the prisoners maintain the prisons and turn a surplus into the general treasury.

The theory that the labor of the convicts should be made to maintain the prisons, and yield, besides, a surplus to the public treasury, was long predominant with legislatures, and this, together with the treatment of the penal institutions as party spoils, kept them, for many years, hot beds of corruption and strongholds of injustice and brutality. These abuses, however, attracted increasing attention from the people, and, although the Legislature would not let go its political control, some reforms were finally effected. In 1896 the Warden of the Southern Prison introduced what he called the "graded system." By this system he divided the prisoners into three or four distinct classes, and the clothing was made to designate the class to which the prisoner belonged. The lowest class was composed of those prisoners who persistently violated the rules of the prison, and received no good conduct certificate. From that the prisoner could work his way up to the highest or most privileged class, by good conduct. Privileges and favors were given to each class. This was another inducement to good behavior. By his own efforts a prisoner could almost entirely rid himself of the hated convict dress, that for so many years has been the distinguishing mark of the convict. This system worked so well that the Legislature of 1897 adopted it and ordered its introduction into all the prisons of the State.

By this time the basic principle of reformation was again taking hold on the public mind, and the Legislature of 1897 took a great step in advance, enacting several laws, all tending toward the reformation of the vicious. The prisons were again divided, that at Jeffersonville being designated a Reformatory, and that at Michigan City as the penitentiary. To the penitentiary were to be sent all life convicts, and all convicts over the age of thirty years, it being considered that persons over that age, convicted of crime, are not likely to be reformed. Those under the age of thirty were to be sent to the Reformatory at Jefferson-

ville, where every effort should be put forth for their permanent reformation and restoration to citizenship. The indeterminate sentence system was also adopted. Under the old laws the juries determined the guilt and fixed the punishment. This system proved unsatisfactory for many reasons. Juries are always uncertain, and very frequently, owing to the artful pleading of the attorneys, a prisoner, deserving the full limit of the law, was let off with the lightest possible sentence, while others deserving leniency were punished to the full extent. These cases of injustice would embitter the one and embolden the other, while at the same time a general contempt for the jury system was engendered.

Under the new law, the juries find only as to the guilt or innocence, and the term of imprisonment rests with the Board of Government of the Prisons, the good conduct of the prisoner, or other evidence of reformation being the determining factor. If he gives no evidence of reformation he is kept in prison to the extreme limit of the law. The same Legislature abolished the contract system for prison labor, and provided that thereafter the labor of the convicts should be confined to such work as may be needed in the prisons or other State institutions. The Boards of Control for the prison and the reformatory are appointed by the Governor.

Closely identified with the prisons, especially in the work of reforming their management, is the State Board of Charities. This Board was established by a law enacted in 1889. Its members are appointed by the Governor, and serve without pay. The act defines their duties as follows: "They shall investigate the whole system of public charities and correctional institutions of the State, examine into the condition and management thereof, especially of prisons, jails, infirmaries, public hospitals and asylums; and the officers in charge of all such institutions shall furnish to the Board, on their request, such information and statistics as they may require; and, to secure accuracy, uniformity and completeness in such statistics, the Board may prescribe such forms of report and registration as they may deem essential; and all plans for new jails and infirmaries shall, before the adoption of the same by the County authorities, be submitted to said Board for suggestion and

criticism. The Board, in its discretion, may at any time make an investigation, by the whole Board or a committee of its members, of the management of any penal, reformatory, or charitable institution of the State." This Board has been very active and has had much to do with working out reforms in the various State institutions.

CHAPTER XIX.

TRANSPORTATION.

When the French made their first settlement in Indiana, it was difficult to get supplies to them. They had to be brought from Canada. The French trappers and hunters who first entered this territory managed to live as did the Indians, and, therefore, required no base of supplies, but soldiers at military posts could not provide for themselves in that way, and regular supplies were needed. The voyagers from Canada, sailing around the shores of Lake Erie, found the mouth of the Maumee River, and entering it paddled their light canoes up that stream until they came to the junction of the two streams now known as the St. Joseph and the St. Mary. Once there it was not long before they learned from the Indians that by a short portage they could reach Little River and then the Wau-bish, as it was called by the Indians, and by floating down that stream could finally enter the "Great River." They made the portage, and, floating down, reached the posts at Ouiatenon and Vincennes. The French called the river Ouabach, and for a long time that was the name given to the lower Ohio by some explorers. On many of the old maps the Ouabach is designated as the main stream, and only the part of the Ohio above the mouth of the Wabash is called by the former name. From that time for many years all the supplies for Vincennes and Ouiatenon were brought by the way of Lake Erie and the Maumee and Wabash Rivers. Some years later, when a settlement had been made at New Orleans, part of the supplies were brought up the Mississippi in pirogues, and then by the Ohio and Wabash to Vincennes. When the Americans began making settlements in Kentucky they obtained their supplies overland

from Virginia or the Carolinas by pack horses, or from Pittsburg by flat-bottomed boats down the Ohio. When, by the capture of Vincennes by George Rogers Clark, this territory fell under the jurisdiction of the American Colonies, the few inhabitants obtained their supplies by way of the Ohio, down which they were brought to the falls by boats and then transported overland to Vincennes by pack horses. A few boats, however, were floated to the mouth of the Wabash and then poled up that river.

All the early settlements were along either the Ohio or the Wabash, and the people depended upon those two streams for communication with the outer world. They had nothing to sell but peltries, and about the only supplies they needed were iron, salt, and ammunition for their rifles. For everything else they depended upon their own efforts. For many years the communication between the frontiers in Indiana and the older colonies was very precarious. Hostile bands of Indians watched the river, and attacks upon the flatboats were of frequent occurrence. The undergrowth along the banks of the river furnished ample means for concealment for the wily Indians, until the current would drive some boat close into the land, when its unsuspecting crew would receive a volley from a foe they could not see. As the settlements drifted back from the Ohio or Wabash they kept pretty close to some of the streams flowing into one or the other of those rivers, and when the time came that they had something to sell their only way to get that surplus to market was by floating out flatboats. There were no roads into the interior of the territory. From Vincennes to the Falls of the Ohio was a well marked Indian or buffalo trail, and that had been used by the pack horses. It was the only semblance to a road in the whole State. In fact when the city of Indianapolis was laid out, and designated as the future capital of the State, there were no roads, and one of the first things the Legislature did, after accepting the report of the Commissioners empowered to select a site for a capital, was to appropriate money for the building of roads to the new city. One was to connect the new capital with the Ohio River at Lawrenceburg, another with Madison and another with Jeffersonville, and roads were also ordered north and west.

About this time keel boats made their appearance on the rivers. These boats were poled up the Mississippi and Ohio Rivers, and then up some of the interior streams. Two such boats made their appearance at the site of Indianapolis. Such boats would carry several tons of supplies, but it was slow work pushing them up from New Orleans. It required about one hundred days to make the journey. In 1817 one of these barges arrived at Lawrenceburg in ninety-seven days from New Orleans, and it was hailed as a remarkably quick passage, and regarded as worthy of record. The people of Ohio began to feel the need of a market for their surplus products several years before such a want was known to those in Indiana. As early as 1801 they began the work of finding a way to market, and in that year a sea-going vessel was built at Marietta. It was a vessel of one hundred tons burden, and they named it the "St. Clair." It arrived at Cincinnati on April 27th of that year and caused the most intense excitement, the people crowding in great numbers to see it. It was loaded with the produce of the country, and was bound for the West Indies. In 1811 Robert Fulton and Robert Livingston caused to be built at Pittsburg a steamboat for navigating the Ohio River. It made its first voyage in October of that year. This vessel, by the noise it made and the smoke it threw off, created great terror along the banks of the river. Its passage down to the Mississippi occurred about the time of the great earthquake at New Madrid, Missouri, and many people were convinced that it had caused the convulsions of the earth.

For many years, however, the people of Indiana depended mainly upon flatboats for shipping their products to market. Boats would be built in the summer, loaded with wheat, corn and such other marketable products as were to be had, and then wait for a freshet to carry them out into some of the streams leading into the Ohio. People living immediately on the Ohio did not have to depend so much on this method of transportation, but up to the breaking out of the Civil War Indiana annually sent a large number of flatboats down the river. Before that time, however, the railroads had very materially increased transportation facilities, and the people of the State had begun to find another market than New Orleans. From the first

introduction of steamboats until about 1860 they were a source of great revenue to their owners, and many of the fortunes of Louisville, Cincinnati, Madison, New Albany and Evansville were derived from that source.

At first the boats were small and poorly equipped, but as the country settled up and trade grew more brisk, the boats increased in size and equipment until some of them were palatial in their appointments. Steamboat building was carried on very extensively. The journey that required one hundred days, or more, for a barge to make, was often accomplished in less than seven by these steamers, and they carried very large cargoes.

The first roads constructed were simply highways, with the trees cut down, leaving the stumps. There was no attempt made at grading, and when it was possible the roads were opened along the base of the hills, to avoid heavy grades. The bottoms caught all the rain, and as a consequence during some seasons the roads were almost impassable, because of the mud. Straight lines were never sought, and the roads wound in and out, sometimes to such an extent as to lengthen the distance between two points very materially. As an evidence of how slow traveling was over those early roads it may be cited that when the archives of the State were removed from Corydon to Indianapolis, the best the wagons could do was to make a dozen miles a day. As the country developed and the demand for supplies increased, enterprising citizens established lines of wagons to points on the Ohio River. Those wagons had to be of the very strongest make to withstand the hardships of the journey. The beds were wide and deep, and they were covered with white canvas stretched over bows. When night overtook him the driver hunted a camping place somewhere near water, fed his horses from the supplies carried along, and then slept in his wagon, the canvas cover protecting the cargo from the weather, as well as furnishing a shelter for the driver during the night. For a number of years such caravans furnished about the only means of transporting freight to the interior of the State. For passengers and the mails, stage lines were operated. The stages were great, clumsy vehicles, swung on leather springs, which gave them a peculiar rocking motion. To these four, and sometimes six horses, were

hitched. In the rainy seasons the passengers were frequently required to walk, carrying rails to help the stage out of the mudholes found at short intervals. A traveler on one of these early coaches thus described his journey:

"I left Brookville on Wednesday noon, expecting to reach Greencastle by Friday night. The first seventeen miles were traveled in a two-horse coach. It had been raining for two weeks. There were no turnpikes then in Indiana. We were six hours in reaching Bulltown. From there to Indianapolis the stage, which had been running three times a week, had been taken off on account of the bad roads, and a two-horse wagon without cover or springs, had been substituted. In this, before daylight, we started, hoping to make Indianapolis before the stage for the West should leave at 10 o'clock at night. Night overtook us about ten miles from Indianapolis. About 8 o'clock our wagon broke down, and we were still six miles from Indianapolis. There were three of us—the driver, an agent of the stage line, and myself. The only baggage was my trunk and the mail pouch. It was determined the driver should ride one horse, carrying my trunk before him, the stage agent should ride the other and carry the mail pouch before him, and myself behind him. By this conveyance I made my first entrance into Indianapolis, about 11 o'clock at night. The stage for the West had been gone an hour or more, and I had to wait until the next night."

For some years the nearest grist mill to Indianapolis was sixty miles away, and all grain had to be conveyed that distance, to be made into flour or meal, over such roads as have just been described. In fact, until the introduction of railroads, much of the grain raised in the central and western parts of the State was hauled to Lawrenceburg, and there exchanged for salt, iron, dye-stuffs, and other necessities, and the average price of wheat, in those days, when thus transported and delivered, was only fifty cents a bushel, while the articles given in exchange sold at four or five times the prices demanded at the present time. Under all these adverse circumstances, it is not to be wondered at that the farmers greedily took hold of and advocated any measure which promised relief, and when the subject of "internal improvements," which meant the building of turnpikes, canals and railroads, was under discussion, they

eagerly supported such measures. Oliver H. Smith, who at one time represented the State in the United States Senate, in his delightful book of reminiscences, gives what he declares was a speech made in the State Legislature, by a farmer member, advocating an appropriation for the Wabash and Erie canal, in which he makes the earnest legislator to say: "Mr. Speaker—The wants of the Wabash Valley am great, but its resources for salt am slim." The language was homely, and not used altogether according to the rules laid down by Lindlay Murray, but it told the whole story. The Wabash Valley was capable of producing grain enough for an empire, but had no way to get that grain to market or to receive the supplies needed, and until that way was provided its growth would be retarded. The people of Indiana then did not look forward to manufacturing industries, but expected the State would be wholly devoted to agriculture, and as the products of the farm were bulky and heavy, unless a market could be provided settlers in any great number would not come.

An apparently brighter day was dawning. Congress had taken hold of the matter of internal improvements, and had ordered the construction of a wide wagon road, which was to be graded and piked from Cumberland, Maryland, to the Mississippi River at St. Louis, and had also donated to Indiana a large amount of public lands to aid in the construction of a canal from Lake Erie to the head of navigation on the Wabash, if that point could be found. The State accepted the gift and began work on the canal. Other canals were projected, and the building of turnpikes was also undertaken. For a while the canals, as far as they were completed, did a very large business, but before they had gotten fairly underway, railroads came, and their mission was practically ended. The old lumbering stage coaches, the Conestoga wagons, and the slow-moving canal packets gave way to the iron horse and its long train of rapidly moving cars. The State expended millions of dollars on the works projected, with but little benefit to the people.

In 1831 the mania for railroad building seized upon the people, and a number of companies were formed. All the projected railroads were to center at Indianapolis, and charters were asked from the State. In two days the Leg-

islature granted six such charters. One road was to run from Indianapolis to Lawrenceburg, another to Madison, still another to New Albany, a fourth to Corydon and one to the northwest part of the State, having Lafayette for a terminus. New Albany and Corydon are both in the southern part of the State, and only fifteen or twenty miles apart, so it will be seen that at least two of these roads would have paralleled each other the entire distance, and this through a meagerly settled territory. Surveys were begun for all of these roads, and some of the work of construction was done.

When, in 1836, the State took up in earnest the work of aiding internal improvements, it subscribed for a large part of the stock of the Madison and Indianapolis road. Madison, at that time, was the chief emporium of the State. It was the largest town and the wealthiest. It had been experiencing an era of prosperity from the introduction of steamboats on the Ohio River. It was the great gateway into the State, and Indianapolis for a number of years had been dependent upon it for supplies. One of the first roads ordered by the Legislature was from Indianapolis to Madison, which was the nearest point on the Ohio River to the capital. The railroad was completed by the State from Madison to Vernon, in Jennings County, a distance of twenty miles, in 1839, and was operated by the State until 1843. Then it was sold for a small amount, and the work of completing it according to the original charter was slowly pushed forward. It finally reached Indianapolis in October, 1847, and for several years was one of the best money making roads in the country. It was the first railroad in the State and was the pioneer of the magnificent system that has since made Indiana a network of iron rails. The competition of other lines, and bad management on the part of its operators, finally drove the company into practical bankruptcy, and the road became a part of the Pennsylvania system. The marked feature of the road is the "deep cut" at Madison. The grade climbing the hill from the Ohio River is said to be one of the steepest railroad grades in the country. All trains are taken up and down the grade by an engine built especially for the work. Once begun, the work of railroad building went rapidly forward until it was checked to some extent by the Civil War. Per-

haps but one of all the roads constructed at this period ever permanently paid the men who built it, and that was the Indianapolis and Terre Haute. All the others have had a more or less chequered career, passing from the hands of one company to another, at frequent intervals. Indiana is in the way from the East to the West. The great lakes in the north force all railroads seeking an outlet in the West to cross this State, and those lines have always been the most profitable, but the State now has a number of prosperous north and south lines.

After the war the Legislature enacted a law permitting counties, townships and cities to vote aid to railroads, the money to be raised by taxation. This law proved of doubtful benefit. It is true that some roads which have been of great benefit to the sections of the State through which they run could not and would not have been built so soon, if at all, without this aid, but it is equally true that many roads were begun and that some were completed which were not needed, and for which there was not even the most distant prospect of there ever being enough business to pay for their operation. The organization of railroad companies was followed a few years later by that of Express Companies and they in turn by Fast Freight Lines, and these corporations carry a large proportion of the freight shipped over the railroads.

The railroad lines in Indiana now operate in the State 7000 miles of main track, and 5200 miles of side tracks. It is hard for the mind to grasp the immense tonnage annually carried over the many roads which cross Indiana from East to West and from North to South, and to realize that all this has grown up in a single lifetime is still harder. It is only fifty-five years since the first railroad was completed in the State, and but little more since the first rail was laid, yet the railroads of Indiana have made and developed an empire, with resources greater than ever the empire of Rome controlled. Without them, or some other equally rapid mode of communication and transportation, Indiana would have remained to this day but sparsely settled, almost without manufactures, and depending alone on agriculture. The railroads, with other modern devices, have built up busy cities, which in turn have demanded more rapid transit for their people to and from their daily

business, and street cars came in due time. Forty years ago there was not a street railroad in Indiana. In 1863 one or two short lines were established in Indianapolis. The cars were small, drawn by mules, and their trips irregular. Now there is hardly a town of any importance without electric lines. At the present time, there are but two Counties in the State without railroad communication with the rest of the world.

Closely following the railroads came the electric telegraph. The first telegraph line put up in the State was in 1848. It is to an Indiana member of Congress much of the credit is due for the introduction of the telegraph. When Professor Morse had developed his idea of sending messages by wire from one point to another, he petitioned Congress for aid in demonstrating the reality as well as the utility of his discovery. He was poor and without the means to erect a line for the purpose of testing his invention, and asked Congress for a small appropriation. It was debated pro and con, not only among the members of Congress, but by the people generally. By most it was looked upon as only the dream of a visionary, and was greatly derided by many of the papers. Suppose messages could be sent, they said, of what practical utility will it be? Who will want to use such means of correspondence? The petition of Professor Morse was submitted to a committee of Congress. David Wallace, the member from the Indianapolis district, was one of that committee. The committee discussed the matter until Professor Morse almost lost faith. At last the day came for the committee to make its report. The question was put whether the committee should recommend the appropriation or not. The name of Mr. Wallace was the last on the roll. When his name was called the vote was a tie, and it was left for him to decide the question. He voted for the appropriation. Morse had won, but it cost Mr. Wallace his seat in Congress, for at the next election the people of his district said they wanted no man in Congress who would waste the people's money on any such foolish experiments. Between him and his competitor that was the only issue in the campaign. It was not long, however, until Mr. Wallace looked upon that vote as the proudest thing in his Congressional career.

CHAPTER XX.

AGRICULTURE.

Agriculture in Indiana dates from the earliest French settlements in 1735. Those early settlers found the Indians rudely cultivating little patches of ground, here and there around their villages, principally growing maize and melons. Their efforts were of the rudest kind, and the work lazily performed by the squaws. The French settlers at Post Vincennes cared little more for agriculture than did their savage neighbors. Like them they depended mainly on the rivers and forests for their table supplies, but the Indians having granted them land in the immediate neighborhood of the Post, they cultivated a few acres at first only enough to supply their own limited wants. Wheat and corn were the principal products, but oats, hemp and potatoes were also cultivated. Those early Frenchmen did one good thing, however. They remembered the fruits and the vines of their fatherland, and brought with them seeds and cuttings and planted the first orchards and vineyards. Until the organization of the Territorial Government of Indiana, in 1800, there were no American settlers in the Territory, with the exception of a few at Vincennes, and others in the neighborhood of the Falls of the Ohio, but immigration soon set in after the establishment of the Territorial Government. Then a southern Indiana was an unbroken wilderness of heavily timbered forests. The first settlers planted their homes close along the banks of the Ohio, and endeavored to cultivate the little valleys and the hillsides. It was an uninviting field, the main promise of which was hard and unremitting toil for many years to clear off the gigantic fore-

trees, and grub out the stumps and roots, before the farm would begin to be profitable, but the pioneers were a sturdy race, not afraid of hard work.

The soil was virgin and rich, and yielded readily to the demands of the cultivator. As the Indian titles to the land were extinguished the settlers pushed farther into the interior, but there they found the same unbroken forests of white and burr oak, walnut, beech, maple, poplar and other trees. Such dense timber they had never met with before, and the gigantic poplars, lifting their heads a hundred and more feet into the air, were a revelation to them. Then, too, the forests were intertwined by almost impenetrable jungles of undergrowth. The settlers were mainly poor, bringing with them nothing but a few domestic animals, a handful of household furniture, and a few dollars in money to make the first payment on the land purchased from the government. The farms thus purchased were small, seldom exceeding one hundred and sixty acres, and more frequently reaching only eighty acres. The woods abounded in wild game and the streams with fish, and thus the supply of meat was abundant and readily obtained. The first thing to do was to select a farm, then to clear off a little space for the humble cabin, and lastly to begin the work of felling the trees and preparing for the crop to be planted between the stumps. The implements for farm husbandry, in the early day, were of the rudest sort. Among the first plows used in the State was the "bull" plow. The stock or wood work of these plows was generally made by the farmers themselves. The handles were the butts of bushes, the crooked roots forming the hand-hold. The beams were hewn by hand from small, tough oaks. The mold-boards were made from blocks of wood about twenty inches square and three inches thick. The inner, or straight side of the mold-board was fastened to the handle, and the outer surface was hewn out in an irregular troughing shape. The wing of the share extended high up the mold-board. A loop of iron made the point. It took a good team, a strong man, good ground and twelve hours hard work to plow an acre and a half with such a plow.

On the hill sides the farmer plowed so as to throw the furrow down the hill, and to do this the plow had to be dragged back to the starting point, after every furrow.

Contrast that slow and laborious method with the revolving plow now in use. The harrow was V shaped, with wooden teeth, the whole made by the farmer himself. The wheat had to be harvested with a sickle, with which an expert cutter would get over about three-quarters of an acre a day. About 1840 an improved plow, known as the "Peacock," taking its name from its inventor, was introduced. This created a revolution in the work of the farm, enabling the farmer to plow twice as much land in a day as before.

The methods of planting and sowing were also primitive. The corn ground was "laid off" both ways; the wife, or the boy or girl, dropped the corn at the intersections, while the farmer followed and covered with a hoe. Wheat, oats and barley were sown "broadcast," the sower carrying his grain in a sack swung around his neck. It was almost impossible to obtain help, and all the work devolved upon the farmer and his family. When there did come a surplus of population, and men were seeking farm work, about the only time they could find employment was when the harvest was ready to be gathered. Then the bands of sicklers came into play. Usually from five to ten persons formed a band of reapers; one man following another across the field, cutting about half an acre each a day. These bands began their work in the southern part of the State, where the grain ripened first, and reaped fields northward until they reached the verge of civilized life in the Territory. The best reapers received thirty-seven and a half cents per day, or a bushel of wheat. It was not until 1840 that the grain cradle came into general use in the State. With that new implement a good cradler and two binders could harvest and shock about two acres per day.

Previous to 1840 the grain was threshed either with a flail or tramped out with horses. Two men could flail out and winnow about twelve bushels per day, and two men and a boy, with horses, could tramp out and winnow about twenty bushels a day. The winnowing, or separating the grain from the chaff, was done by the hand sieve. The mixed chaff and grain was poured from above on a bed sheet, while two men so vibrated the sheet as to create a current of air, which blew the chaff to one side, while the heavier grain fell in a pile at their feet. The first threshing machine was introduced into the southern part of the

State in 1839. With four horses and eight or nine men two hundred bushels of wheat could be threshed in a day. The wheat so threshed had to be cleaned afterward. It required three men two days to clean and sack what had been threshed in one. This was thought to be a wonderful improvement over the old way, and it was, but when compared with the steam threshers and separators of the present day, it was very primitive.

The scythe was the only implement for mowing the meadows. A good, strong man could only cut from one to two acres in a day, working from sun rise until dark. The hand rake was then used to rake up the hay preparatory to stacking it with a wooden fork. With a mowing machine a man now cuts ten acres a day, and with a steel-tooth horse rake another easily prepares it for the stack, and a steel fork operated by a man and a horse stacks it. The first hay press in use was made of a long wooden screw about a foot in diameter, with ten or twelve feet of thread to the screw. A stick of timber twenty-six inches square with a hole through the center served as a nut, with threads cut to receive the wooden screw. The nut was framed into the top of two great posts, twenty-six by eighteen inches in size, and twenty-one feet long, standing four and a half feet apart. Six of these posts were planted in the ground. A space eleven feet high was left to receive the hay to be pressed. To the top of the great wooden screw was fastened a sweep, thirty feet long, bent downward. To this horses were hitched. To complete a bale, two feet square and four feet long, the horses operating the screw had to travel about a mile and a half.

Previous to the introduction of improved implements, about 1840, it took one farm hand twenty-four days to plow, seed and harvest ten acres of wheat, and forty-four days to plow, plant, cultivate and harvest ten acres of corn. At first only enough grain was grown for the use of the family and for stock feeding, as there was no market for it. The corn was ground or pounded into a coarse meal, in a mortar, with a large pestle, or made into hominy. To these succeeded hand mills. As the farmer got more land cleared, he cultivated more corn and fed hogs, they transporting themselves to market. The breed was rough, and

the hogs when fattened for market only averaged about two hundred pounds gross weight, and prior to 1843 the price never reached two cents per pound gross. Cincinnati and Lawrenceburg were the two great markets for hogs, and in the winter the drovers would wend their slow way to those places, driving several hundred hogs. During the summer and fall the hogs were permitted to run at large in the forests, eating the great quantities of mast which there abounded. Later they were gathered up and fed for a few weeks on corn, thus making their meat marketable. Running at large they became wild, and often it would be the work of days and weeks to gather them together for fattening.

As farming stretched farther into the interior, the difficulty of getting to market increased. Roads were few, and of the worst character. What surplus was raised had to find a market at Cincinnati, Louisville or New Orleans. To reach New Orleans, flatboats were used, and the farms near the interior streams were the more profitable, for the farmers would combine, build one or more flatboats, load them with grain or baled hay, and float them out to the Ohio and then on down to New Orleans. Wheat and corn were frequently hauled to these water ways from a distance of seventy-five and a hundred miles, and when thus delivered, over roads which much of the time were almost impassable, the prices obtained, prior to 1840, were from thirty to fifty cents a bushel for wheat, and from ten to twelve cents a bushel for corn.

Few cattle were raised, only enough to furnish milk and butter for the family, and a yoke or two for farm work. A few sheep were also kept, of mongrel breeds, to supply wool for clothing. The wool was carded by hand, made into yarn on the hand spinning wheel, and woven into jeans and linsey on hand looms, every farm house being supplied with these necessary articles to the pioneer. Milk cows were sold for eight dollars, and the best only produced three pounds of butter a week. Horses were only raised for farm purposes, and the breed was very indifferent. After some years water mills began to appear here and there along the streams, but they were only cal-

culated to grind for home consumption, and the farmer, when he wanted flour or meal, would fill a sack with wheat or corn, and throwing it over his horse, go several miles to mill, where, perhaps, he would have to wait half a day for his "turn." The first flour mill of any consequence erected in the State was built at Lawrenceburg in 1839. To this mill, wheat was transported over the bad roads from all of central Indiana. A trip required from eight to ten days, and from seven hundred to nine hundred pounds was a good load for two horses or a yoke of cattle. Once at the mill the farmer would sell his wheat and take his pay in iron, salt, dye stuffs and other necessities. The wheat when made into flour was shipped to New Orleans by boat.

But a better day was coming for the Indiana farmer. New and better facilities for reaching markets were to be opened up. The first of these was the Wabash and Erie canal which was opened in 1841. This waterway connected with the lakes, and reached far into the interior of the State, thus affording ready and cheap transportation to the markets of the East, and even to Europe. This gave a great impetus to the agricultural interests of the State, and the area of farming was widened. Hogs were no longer the best paying product to be raised on the farm. Wheat, oats and other cereals began to be profitable, and the work of the farmer was greatly diversified. Railroads were soon to furnish new markets for the surplus of the farmer. This brought a rotation of crops. Railroads were followed by manufacturing establishments, and a greater home demand. The increased foreign and home demand brought with it a better breed of live stock and better varieties of grain. The farm acreage increased rapidly, and the new and improved implements and farm machinery made it possible for the agriculturist to keep up with the increased demand for his products.

Before the introduction of railroads few cattle were kept on the farms, save for milk and butter, and those were of very indifferent breeds. The beef cattle weighed from seven hundred to nine hundred pounds, and were counted as being extra fine if they were brought to weigh

one thousand pounds at five years old. The price was about one and a half cents per pound.

It required two years to mature for market the breed of hogs then in the State, and then they seldom weighed more than two hundred pounds. As early as 1825 a better breed of cattle had been introduced, but they were looked upon as being too fancy for the average farmer. The first shorthorn cattle of the pure breeds introduced into the State was in 1825, by Edward Talbot, a progressive farmer of Jefferson County. Three years later, John Owens, of Monroe County, also imported some of the same breed. For several years their introduction was looked upon with suspicion by the farmers of the State, but in 1835, at the Marion County fair, a display was made of these cattle and they began to attract attention. Thirty years after their introduction there were only thirty-five breeders of shorthorns in the State, and they were confined to nineteen of the ninety-two Counties, and only one hundred and thirty-seven head were recorded. From this date the breeding of shorthorns rapidly increased, as it was found that in half the time it took to mature one of the old breed and make it weigh from 700 to 900 pounds, a shorthorn could be brought to weigh from 1400 to 1600 pounds. There are now in the State about twelve hundred breeders of shorthorns, with herds numbering about fifteen thousand cattle. The introduction of other improved breeds was of much later date, but now the State can show great herds of Herefords, Polled Angus, Red Polls and Galloways, for beef cattle, and Jerseys, Holstein-Friesians and Devons for the dairy. They are now found in every part of the State, while the old common breeds have almost entirely disappeared.

For many years the farmers clung to their old "razor-back," mast-fed hogs, but they, too, have given way before the march of improvement, and now none but the best breeds are grown. Poland Chinas, Berkshires and Chester Whites are seen everywhere, and to fatten one of these for market, and make it weigh from five hundred to eight hundred pounds, takes no more corn than it formerly did to get two hundred pounds of meat on a "razor-back." The same great improvement in sheep raising has been made.

None but pure breeds are now seen, and the number has been increasing from year to year.

Drainage, as well as improved methods of cultivation, and a better demand for agricultural commodities, has had much to do with the great increase in the production of the farms of the State. Indiana is nearly a level plain, from the Ohio River to the lakes, thus left by the glacial period. The rivers and other water courses had cut their way through the plain and the bordering hills. The general trend of the plain is to the southwest. The elevation above the sea level is about one thousand feet in the northern and eastern section, and at the mouth of the Wabash three hundred and thirteen feet. In the northeastern part of the State is a small section where the flow of the water is toward the north. This section is drained by the Maumee, which flows northeastwardly into Lake Erie, and the St. Joseph, which flows northwardly into Lake Michigan. All the other streams of any importance find their way to the Ohio, and then to the Gulf of Mexico. This watershed toward the southwest has had a tendency to lower by several hundred feet the general surface of what was originally nearly a level plain. The marsh table lands of the Kankakee are one hundred and fifty feet above the Wabash, to the south; nearly one hundred feet higher than Lake Michigan to the north, and seven hundred feet above sea level. The State is traversed in every direction by many smaller streams, all furnishing good natural drainage. In the northern part of the State are a number of lakes, and until within the last few years much of the land was marshy, and generally regarded as worthless for agricultural purposes. Drainage has made those marshes the garden spot of the State. This great work has been aided by wise drainage laws, enacted by the Legislature. The drainage has not been confined to wet lands, but has been extended to every section of the State where the soil is underlaid with clay. Wherever complete tile drainage has been accomplished the yield of the land has been doubled. Many thousand miles of tiles have been laid within the last few years, and the work is still going on.

Indiana abounds in soil variety. The summit lands, lying at the top of the divides or watersheds, are underlaid with a heavy clay. Usually the vegetable accumulation

forming the top soil is not deep, but with proper cultivation and drainage is very productive in the growth of meadows and cereals. The native soils of the beech and oak flats are light, and were rapidly exhausted, but under drainage and fertilization have again become very productive, and grow as fine grass and grain as are raised in the State. The summit, wet, muck soils, were once shunned as worthless, but having been reclaimed by drainage, are now held to be among the best. The undulating uplands, either timbered or prairie, are very much alike. They are both sandy loams, decayed vegetation being much greater in the prairie than in the timbered. These lands have a loamy clay subsoil, which holds moisture and readily yields large crops. The soil contains about sixty per cent. of fine sand, which prevents baking. It produces the cereals well and makes the very best pasture lands, blue grass flourishing especially. This soil is also very durable, the subsoil abounding in the elements of mineral fertility to a depth of several feet. The valleys along the water courses have alluvial soils of great richness. Great crops of corn are annually grown upon them, yielding seventy and eighty bushels per acre. These valley lands are generally skirted with what are called second bottom lands, with a rich sandy loam upon a clay subsoil. Wheat, oats, timothy, and indeed almost all crops, grow here in the greatest abundance.

The richest soils of the State, however, are found on the prairies in the northern and western sections. They are underlaid by a heavy clay subsoil. The soils are rich in vegetable matter, and contain a very considerable per cent. of fine sand. The prairies are well adapted to wheat, corn, oats and all varieties of grass. Along the Ohio River the soil has proved especially productive for fruit culture, and much of the land in the southern tier of counties is now given up to peach growing. Taken all in all, none of the great central States have a greater variety of soils, or soils that are more uniformly productive of good crops.

In 1897 it developed that Indiana had another source of agricultural wealth. In the northern part of the State, along the Kankakee River, are several hundred thousand acres of land, supposed to be practically worthless owing

to the marshy condition. These lands are low and subject to overflow from the river, and in rainy seasons are covered with water. In dry seasons they make excellent grazing ground for cattle, but at other times are useless. For years the question of reclaiming this wet land had been discussed, but the owners of the adjoining land were deterred from undertaking the work by the prevailing belief that when reclaimed the land would not be found to be worth the cost.

In the spring of 1897 it was determined to experiment with this land in the cultivation of the sugar beet. The result was most gratifying, the beets produced on the land showing a much larger percentage of sugar qualities than those raised in France or Germany. It will not be many years before the 500,000 acres will be in a high state of cultivation.

CHAPTER XXI.

NATURAL WEALTH.

Few States, in fact, few nations, are blessed with greater natural resources than Indiana. Geographically so situated that all, or nearly all, of the vast traffic between the older and richer East and the newer but energetic and progressive West and Northwest, has to pass across its territory, it has become a network of railroads, and the sound of moving trains is never absent. These railroads have built up towns, villages and cities, furnished remunerative employment for thousands of its people, and poured wealth in a lavish and never-tiring stream into the State. None of the neighboring States have been blessed with so many sources of wealth and prosperity, and if Indiana has lagged behind any of them in the race of progress, it has been the fault of its own citizens; a lack of energy or enterprise upon their part, and not because nature failed the State in any degree. In the race for population and wealth it has fallen behind Illinois, a younger State, and a State lacking in many of the elements of wealth so abundantly possessed by Indiana. For agricultural purposes most of the soil in Indiana is as good as the best in Illinois. For a successful cultivation of fruit the Indiana soil and climate far surpass those of Illinois, and fully equal those of Ohio. It is true that for navigation Illinois has the Mississippi and Ohio Rivers, while Indiana only has the latter, but the Ohio places it as near the Gulf and the great cities of the South, as the Mississippi does Illinois. Indiana's only lake harbor, at Mich-

igan City, was as good, naturally, as that of Chicago, but the superior energy, activity and foresight of the people of Chicago have gathered from the treasury of the Nation millions for the improvement of the Chicago harbor, while Indiana has been content with a few beggarly thousands.

Illinois has been a persistent and active petitioner at the bar of Congress, while Indiana has remained in the background. Whenever an opportunity has been presented to advertise Illinois, and show to the world what that State had to offer, it has been eagerly seized and the money appropriated, while Indiana has held its purse strings with a tight grip, and doled out pennies where dollars should have been freely given. When the war came the people of Indiana demonstrated that they could be liberal, and their money was freely at the service of the Union and its defenders, but when the question has been of developing the resources of the State and making them known to the world, penuriousness, and not enlightened liberality, has governed. Today Ohio and other States are getting rich off the natural resources of Indiana, while the people of this State are only getting the drippings. It was left to the capitalists of Ohio and Illinois to come in and develop the great stores of petroleum. All that the people of Indiana get from the thousands of barrels taken daily from the State is a little royalty paid to the owners of the lands, while the great bulk of the product goes to enrich the capitalists of other States.

It is as true with States as with individuals, that opportunities once missed seldom return. Indiana has missed many opportunities owing to the carelessness of those who were directing its public affairs; through the negligence or sluggishness of its citizens, or by a lack of intelligent foresight on their part. General Washington was one of the first to realize the future possibilities of the Ohio Valley. During one of the darkest periods of the Revolutionary War, when it looked as if the struggle for independence was doomed to failure, one of the leading patriots asked Washington what the people would do, should it happen that England finally overwhelmed the colonies. Pointing toward the mountains he said the people would emigrate west of them and there establish and maintain a free nation. When peace finally came, he persistently urged upon

Congress the duty of inducing the various colonies which laid claim to the territory west of the mountains to surrender it to the General Government, in order that a large portion of it might be given to the soldiers who had fought for the colonies. But more than a quarter of a century before that, a British officer had forecasted what might be. In one of his letters to the British Government, General Gage, the Commander-in-chief of the British forces in this country, advised his Government to forbid any settlements west of the mountains, saying that if they were permitted it would not be long before they would declare themselves independent, and would be able to maintain their liberties against any force that could be sent against them.

General Washington was not only one of the first to see the possibilities of the Ohio Valley, but was the first to suggest that the great lakes and the Mississippi River be connected. His suggestion was for canals, as railroads were not then known. This suggestion did not bear fruit in his day, but a third of a century later it took hold of the imagination of some of the enterprising citizens of the East. The Erie canal had been completed and the fever of railroad building had taken possession of the public mind. There was an abundance of idle capital, both in this country and in England, seeking investment, and the Ohio Valley presented the most enticing inducements. It was then that Indiana lost its opportunity. It was projected to unite Lake Erie and Lake Michigan by a great double track railroad, and then to extend the road on southwestwardly to the head of steamboat navigation on the Illinois River. It was a grand project. The road was to start from a point on Lake Erie at the head of Maumee Bay, and connect with Lake Michigan at Michigan City. The harbor at Michigan City was naturally a better one than that at Chicago. In 1835 the Buffalo and Mississippi Railroad Company was granted a charter by the Legislature of Indiana and the route surveyed.

Among those interested in the project was Daniel Webster, the great Senator from Massachusetts. He came out to Indiana, when the work of building the road was begun with imposing ceremonies, and delivered an address on the occasion to a large concourse of people, gathered from all parts, and himself turned up the first shovel of dirt. So

confident were he and his fellow-projectors that the work would be completed, and Michigan City become a great city on the lake, that they purchased a great deal of property, and thus the little town experienced its first "boom." There were three things they did not count on: The first stumbling block was the Illinois Legislature. Unfortunately for the Buffalo and Mississippi Railroad, in those days it was necessary to get a charter in every State through which the road was to operate. Chicago was a little town in the swamps, but its citizens were active and far-seeing. They could readily see that if the projected railroad was constructed Michigan City would be the great lake port, and they would be left to enjoy the swamps. They organized a lobby and prevented the Illinois Legislature from granting the charter asked for. The second obstacle was the apathy of the citizens of Indiana. They seemed to take little interest in it and made no effort to overcome the opposition of Chicago. Neither the projectors, nor the people of Indiana, it seems, deemed it possible to reach the Mississippi by any other route. Or if they did they must have thought the hills along the Ohio in southern Indiana could not be overcome by a railroad, for no effort was made to reach the Ohio wholly through Indiana territory. The third obstacle was the great panic of 1837. That put an end, for the time being, to all railroad and canal building.

Chicago, having killed the Buffalo and Mississippi Railroad, did not neglect to push its own interests, and when the effect of the financial panic was worn off, began agitating the construction of a line from that city to the Mississippi. Fortunately for Chicago, Illinois had Stephen A. Douglas in the Senate, and after years of persistent work he induced Congress to grant millions of acres of public land to build the Illinois Central Railroad. Thus Chicago arose from the swamps and became the great city of the lake, and the wonder of the world, while Michigan City only had a few miles of railroad embankment to remind it of what might have been.

While few States have possessed so much natural wealth, it is also true few have so wasted what they did have. The timber of Indiana alone would have made the wealth of an ordinary nation. When the first settlers came

over the mountains from Pennsylvania and Virginia, they found Indiana covered with a forest of the like of which they never had even dreamed. It was a revelation to them, but they did not see the wealth contained in those giant trees. Stately maples, giant poplars, majestic oaks, slender and beautifully proportioned ash trees, together with beeches, hickorys, walnuts, chestnuts, and elms were found everywhere, but the settler only saw the soil which supported this wealth of forest growth, and the trees fell like chips before the axe. Thousands upon thousands of sugar maples, each of which now would be an annual source of wealth to the owner, were cut down and sold for firewood. Walnuts, each of which would now bring the price of a small farm, went to make fence rails; giant poplars, each of which would furnish lumber enough for a small house, went to feed the burning log heap. Year after year this destruction went on, until no estimate can now be formed of the riches thus wasted.

BUILDING STONE.

Indiana has not been so reckless and wasteful with its other natural resources. No other State has better stone for building purposes than Indiana. It is hard to estimate just what amount of wealth Indiana holds in this direction. The oolitic limestone of Monroe, Lawrence and other Counties, although long known, is yet but in the infancy of its popularity. Its durability and strength have been demonstrated by actual use, and today it ranks as the favorite stone among architects and builders. Only a few years ago the world would have laughed at the idea of coming to Indiana for the stone of which to construct great public buildings, fine business blocks and costly residences, but today Indiana stone is eagerly sought after, and it goes to nearly every State. The Government buys it for its public buildings, States use it for their capitols, cities for their halls, and the wealthy for their palaces. It is of a uniform rich gray color and close texture. It is easily quarried and prepared for the use of the builder. The best grades contain ninety-eight per centum of carbonate of lime, which is practically indestructible by ordinary atmospheric influences. Iron oxide and alumina are two of the

most damaging constituents of such stone, but the Indiana oolitic contains less than one percentum of those destroying agencies, thus showing a remarkable degree of purity.

The best deposits of oolitic stone are found in a narrow strip of territory extending from Greencastle, Putnam County, to Salem, Washington County, a distance of more than one hundred miles. The width of the strip varies from three to ten miles, and the stone is found very near the surface. The annual output amounts to between fifteen and twenty million cubic feet, and the supply is great enough to last at this rate for many years. Nor is this the only good building stone in Indiana. In southeastern Indiana, notably in Decatur County, are extensive quarries of blue limestone. This stone is capable of resisting a heavier pressure than any other stone in the West, which makes it peculiarly valuable for foundations of large buildings, and much of it is used for that purpose. It is easily quarried and can be taken out in blocks of any desired size. When first taken out it is soft and easily worked, but hardens by exposure. For paving purposes it has no superior, and slabs containing one hundred and sixty square feet are often quarried. The supply of this stone is hardly conceivable, and as the country grows and large buildings multiply, the wealth it will bring to Indiana will be very great.

Western Indiana is largely underlaid by a sandstone that is easily worked, and is of great commercial value. In many places, notably Dubois, Green and Parke Counties, it is of a handsome brown color. One use to which this brown stone is largely put, is for lintels and cornices above the windows and doors of buildings whose fronts are composed of dry pressed brick. Where limestone is used for lintels the rain in time will dissolve some small portion of the stone, which in flowing down over the brick gives a moldy and streaked appearance. Where brown sandstone is used no such streaking is seen. In Fountain, Warren and Perry Counties is found a buff and gray sandstone. In Orange County is found a most valuable grit for whetstones, and the quarries are largely worked.

COAL.

Among the most valuable natural resources of In-

diana may well be counted the coal measures. Seven thousand square miles, or one-fifth of the area of the State, is underlaid with coal. This area is found in the western and southwestern part of the State, and ranges from ten to sixty miles in width. It extends southward from Warren County to the Ohio River, a distance of one hundred and fifty miles, where it reaches its greatest width, stretching across the Counties of Vanderburgh, Warrick, Spencer and part of Perry. Workable veins are found in nineteen Counties, in the area mentioned, while thin outcrops occur in three other Counties. At least seven distinct veins of workable thickness are found in the State. These vary from three to eleven feet in thickness and in a few places reach an aggregate of from twenty-five to twenty-eight feet. Clay, Sullivan, Greene, Daviess and Pike show the greatest development in coal seams, while Parke, Vermillion, Vigo, Owen, Warrick and Spencer follow very closely.

The coals of the State are of two varieties, which in places merge into one another. These are the non-caking or block coal, and the caking or bituminous. The first is one of the most valuable fuels in the United States. It has a laminated structure and in the direction of the bedding lines splits readily into thin sheets, but breaks with difficulty in the opposite direction. It is mined in blocks as large as it is convenient to handle. This gives it its name of "block coal." It is remarkably free from sulphur or phosphorus, and when burning does not swell. It does not form into a cake by running together. It burns remarkably clear, leaving no clinkers, the only residue being a small quantity of white ashes. This coal is especially valuable as a furnace coal. Ordinarily bituminous coals have to be changed into coke by having their volatile constituents driven off, before they can be utilized in the making of iron products. The sulphur which they contain, if permitted to remain, would destroy the tenacity and malleability of the iron. Their tendency to cake or become packed under the weight of the overlying mass in the blast furnace prevents the free passage of the heat through all portions of the molten iron. The block coal, on account of its freedom from sulphur and phosphorus, and its non-caking qualities, can be used in the blast furnace without coking, thus making it of the greatest value to the iron founder.

For steam and household purposes it stands almost unrivaled. It burns with a uniform blaze that spreads evenly over the exposed surfaces of the boiler, thus securing a uniform expansion of the boiler plates. Its lack of sulphur is another favorable feature in this connection, as it has little detrimental effect upon the boilers, grates or fire boxes. In house grates it burns with a bright, cheerful blaze, such as is made by well seasoned hickory wood, and makes a very hot fire. As a fuel for household use it is only surpassed by natural gas. The block coal area is mainly in Clay, western Owen and southeastern Parke Counties, though small deposits are found in other sections of the State.

The bituminous or caking coals found in Indiana vary much in purity and character, but their average will compare favorably with that of the coal found in other States. They are far more abundant than the block coals, covering an area of almost six thousand, five hundred square miles. Four workable seams are known, the greatest aggregate thickness of which is twenty feet, and the average thickness over the greater part of the area, eleven feet. The Indiana coal fields are yet in the infancy of their development. It will require several centuries to exhaust the natural supply of fuel in Indiana.

NATURAL GAS.

The year 1887 saw another great natural resource developed in Indiana. Pennsylvania had long been the beneficiary of the gas, stored by nature, in the bowels of the earth, waiting for man's necessities for its utilization. Ohio had also developed a natural gas territory. It was believed by many that Indiana also covered a storehouse of this fuel, of which it has been aptly said, "that it furnishes its own transportation." Some attempts to find this field had been made, but without success. At last, however, near Portland, Jay County, a well produced. Since then millions of dollars have been invested in the gas field, and thousands of people have flocked thereto. Cities sprang up where only villages or towns had been—cities now containing thousands of inhabitants, with concreted and electric-lighted streets, with street railroads, theatres,

great churches, water plants, and the busy hum of factories. These are a few of the things brought to Indiana by its natural gas. Anderson, Muncie, Kokomo, Marion, Alexandria and Elwood have been the greatest beneficiaries of this wonderful fuel, but Indianapolis, Fort Wayne, Logansport, Peru and other cities and towns have reaped benefits of almost incalculable value. Wealth and population have flowed into the State in a steady stream.

Originally the gas field covered about five thousand square miles, lying almost together in the central and eastern parts of the State. On account of the encroachment of salt water and petroleum this area has been gradually reduced until the main field contains only about two thousand five hundred square miles. This is larger than has ever been possessed by any other State. In 1897, however, wells furnishing a strong supply were opened in parts of the State far remote from what had up to that time been held to be the only gas field.

The average initial or rock pressure of the entire field was, in 1889, three hundred and twenty-five pounds to the square inch. It was estimated in 1897 that after eight years of use the pressure had been reduced about one hundred pounds to the square inch. When this great supply of natural fuel will be wholly exhausted is only a matter of conjecture, but there are many reasons for believing that the gas in the undeveloped territory, in the main field, will furnish a considerable supply for many years yet, and that gas fields will be developed in other sections of the State.

PETROLEUM.

For thirty years enthusiastic Indianians dreamed of wealth in oil fields, but no systematic effort was made to determine whether the State had hidden away under the surface of the earth that mine of riches. After the discovery of natural gas, the oil fever became greater, and some wells sunk in search of gas disclosed the presence of oil. The development of the oil field, however, did not begin until 1894. Since then the production of petroleum has attained enormous proportions.

The area in which the oil is found has steadily increased, and comprises parts of Adams, Wells, Hunting-

ton, Grant, Blackford, Jay, Randolph, Delaware and Madison Counties. A few wells have been opened in other parts of the State, but the yield has been light. It is not impossible that the oil field will eventually be found to cover fully as great an area as the natural gas belt. Most of the oil is conveyed out of the State by pipe lines.

CLAY DEPOSITS.

Among the most valuable of the undeveloped resources of the State are the clay deposits, which will in the future prove a source of enormous wealth. In one form or another they are found in every County, but the largest and most valuable occur in the western and southwestern parts of the State, where the coal measures exist, for the coal measures of the State are pre-eminently its clay measures. Every seam of coal is normally underlaid by a bed of fire clay, and above the coal there are almost always beds of shale.

These coal shales a few years ago were thought to be worthless, but experiment has proved that they are excellently adapted to the making of paving brick, roofing tile, sewer pipe and many similar products. In Ohio, where forty-four paving brick factories turned out 298,000,000 paving brick, in 1894, eighty per cent. of the best grade was made of the carboniferous shales, which a few years before were wholly unused.

The fire clays beneath the coal can be utilized for the same purposes as the overlying shales, and many of the better grades can be made into refractory wares of good quality. Some of them are also well suited for potters' use:

In Lawrence, Martin and Owen Counties there occur large deposits of a white kaolin, which is the highest grade of clay found in the State. A careful chemical analysis shows that it contains less than two per centum of impurities. The quantity of iron oxide is so small as to have no effect upon the color of the wares made from it, they being if anything, whiter than the clay itself. Like many similar kaolins, this is practically non-plastic; but by grinding very fine and then kneading, it can be made to assume a

certain degree of plasticity. Its refractory properties are the highest, and mixed with a small percentage of a more plastic material, as one of the purer under clays of the coal seams, it can be used in the making of the finer grades of retorts, glass pots, glass tanks, etc. Ground fine and pressed dry it makes the highest grade of fire brick. Much of it has been utilized in the past for the making of pottery and also for alum salts used as sizing for the finer grades of writing and wall paper. Thousands of tons of this purest of clays are visible in the mines which have been opened near Huron, Lawrence County. The stratum thickens as progress is made further back into the hills. The deposit is not a local one, covering a few rods or acres, but square miles, as evidenced by out-crops which are known. There is enough in sight in the mines at this one deposit to last an average factory for a full century, and not a thousandth part has been exposed to view. There it lies, a great mineral resource of untold value, unworked, unutilized, awaiting the coming of energy and capital to make it up into many kinds of products which are now brought into Indiana from distant lands.

Raw materials and fuel, both of excellent qualities, are found associated in enormous quantities in many places which are accessible to transportation; and where the three elements of fuel, raw material and transportation are thus combined, capital in time is sure to come and utilize the natural resources. All of the larger clay industries already in existence in the vicinity of Brazil, Terre Haute and other places are flourishing; the demand for their products in many instances being greater than can possibly be supplied. They have proven by actual experience that the shales and under-clays of the coal measures are in every way fitted for manufacturing purposes.

One of the chief beneficial effects of the development of the clay working industries will be the increase of the available amount of coal in the State. Many seams now thought to be too thin to work will be utilized in connection with the associated shales and fire clays. The minimum thickness of a workable seam of coal will, therefore, be greatly reduced, and many veins, which have been permitted to pass unnoticed, will be mined with profit.

Large deposits of sand, valuable for various manufacturing purposes, have also been opened, and promise to prove a source of wealth to the State.

OTHER ORES.

Limonite or bog iron ore, and siderite or kidney iron ore, are found abundantly in several Counties of Indiana. The former occurs notably in Greene, Martin and Perry Counties, and in the swamps of the Kankakee region; the siderite is found in all the coal bearing Counties. Experience has proved, however, that these ores are too silicious to compete with the rich beds of hematite of Missouri, Tennessee and Georgia. As a proof of this it is only necessary to state that of fourteen blast furnaces which have been erected in the State in the past, not one is now in operation. Most of them have long since gone to ruin and of those still standing the last went out of blast in 1893.

With the exception of small quantities of drift gold, in the form of minute grains and scales, which are found in the sands and gravel beds along the streams of Brown, Morgan and other Counties, near the southern limit of the drift area, no gold, silver or other precious metal is found in the State. In many of the northern Counties small pieces of "black-jack," or zinc blende, galena or red sulphide and native copper, are occasionally found, and give rise to much local excitement and speculation.

CHAPTER XXII.

MANUFACTURES.

Indiana now takes rank among the first States of the Union in the extent and variety of its manufactured products. Manufacturing in Indiana was a plant of slow growth for many years, but in 1887 it sprang rapidly into a giant tree. In the early settlement of the State the only dream of the people was to develop the agricultural resources. At first the grain for home consumption was ground in hand mills, or crushed in mortars. Then horse mills were introduced with a very small capacity. These in turn were succeeded by water mills. In all these no grinding was done except for neighborhood use. They were operated altogether on the "toll" system, the owners of the mill never buying the grain. The first houses were constructed of logs, the floors being made of puncheons, and the roofs of "clapboards," riven from timber sawed of the proper length by saws operated by hand. As population increased, and the demand arose for houses of a more pretentious style, saw mills were introduced, but like the grain mills they only operated to supply the neighborhood demand. Clothing of all kind was made by the women of the household, they spinning the yarn and weaving the fabric. Every house had its spinning wheel and its hand loom. Indiana had been among the sisterhood of States a number of years before a mill was erected for spinning and weaving fabrics for domestic use, and then they were small concerns, depending for their raw material on the few sheep raised within a few miles of the mill. The supply of raw material only furnished employment for the mill for a few months of the year. There was no way of getting the

manufactured product to market, even had there been a market.

When the State increased in population and agricultural products so as to need a foreign market, the surplus wheat was hauled to Lawrenceburg or Louisville and there ground into flour, to be floated down the river to New Orleans. In 1831 a steam mill was erected in Indianapolis, believed to be the first in the State. It was a pretentious affair, and was to saw lumber, grind flour and manufacture woolen goods. It proved a lamentable failure. The mill soon supplied all the lumber needed for the embryo capital, and then the saws were idle. It could in a few weeks grind all the wheat raised in the vicinity, and not enough wool was offered to keep the looms in operation more than one or two months out of the twelve. Until after the introduction of railroads manufacturing in Indiana was confined chiefly to steamboat building. The magnificent forests of southern Indiana offered great inducements for shipbuilding. Steam navigation on the Ohio and Mississippi grew very rapidly, and for a number of years Indiana very nearly monopolized the trade in boat building. The first few steamers were built at Pittsburg, but Madison, Jeffersonville, New Albany, and at a later period Evansville, were largely engaged in constructing steamboats. Many of the finest and fastest steamers ever plying the western waters were built at Madison and New Albany. This boat building gave an impetus to the construction of machinery, and foundries and machine shops furnished work for large forces of skilled mechanics. As steamboats multiplied and a way to market was made, flour mills increased in the river towns, and at length quite a trade sprang up in flour, for shipment to the Southern cities.

As railroads increased and drew away traffic from the river, the building of boats decreased, and for many years was pretty nearly abandoned. In late years, however, it has revived and the ship yards at Madison and Jeffersonville are once more doing a thriving business. The capital invested in this branch of industry amounts to about \$3,000,000 and the output to about \$4,000,000. This revival of steamboat building has had a decided effect in reviving other branches of industry in the river towns and cities. Indiana handicraft is now seen in some of the finest and

fleetest steamers that ply on the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers. This and other branches of industry, however, are very fast denuding our forests of the remaining trees of commercial value.

Among the earliest manufactures in Indiana was that of staves, and heading for cooperage. The forests of Southern Indiana especially abounded in excellent timber for this industry, and factories were started in a number of the towns and cities, which consumed vast quantities of it. At first the people of Indiana began shipping the young timber for hoops to other States. This was either floated down the Ohio River on flatboats, or loaded into cars for transportation to distant points, and at one time it was no unusual thing to see whole trains loaded with hoop-pole timber. The next thing was to rive out the headings and staves and ship them away to be put together at some distant point. The heading and stave factories were started to prepare the work for the cooperage in our own State. This was a very thriving business and is still carried on to a large extent.

Among the earliest industries, on a large scale, was the manufacture of wagons and other vehicles. The abundant timber found in the forests of the State made this class of work very profitable, and for many years Indiana wagons and carriages have been famous, not only in this country but abroad, and thousands of Indiana-made vehicles have been shipped to other countries. The capital invested in this industry is very large, and several thousand people find constant employment. There is no way of telling the number of vehicles of various kinds manufactured annually in the State, but there are several establishments that turn out many thousands each. They no longer confine themselves to the timber of Indiana, but all the States are searched for suitable material, and hundreds of men are employed in cutting the timber, not included in the number of employes in the factories proper. Few appreciate the enormous proportions to which this industry has grown within the last few years. The splendid railroad facilities furnishing ready access to timber, no matter how far away, and to the markets with the manufactured products, still makes Indiana the great center of this industry.

Timber being the chief raw material for manufactures

found in Indiana, it is not surprising that for many years the principal industries were devoted to working up this raw material. The manufacture of furniture followed closely on the heels of that of vehicles, and today is one of the leading industries in the State, in number of establishments. The output is not so large, but still it amounts to several million dollars. Much of this furniture is shipped to distant points. Especially is this the case with desks for offices. Some establishments engaged in this latter branch of the business have made extensive shipments to Mexico, the South American States and to Europe.

The manufacture of farm implements is another business using this raw material very largely, and has been extensively carried on for a number of years. Especially in the manufacture of plows has Indiana excelled. The business in this line has been very large, but reapers, mowers, threshers and all the smaller implements are also manufactured on a large scale.

Of late years the making of bicycles and automobiles has furnished employment for hundreds of people, and a very large capital. In this same line is the building of cars. All the great railroad lines have their own shops, where their cars are repaired and rebuilt, and some of them manufacture cars, especially passenger coaches. There are several establishments engaged exclusively in building freight cars. The constant demand for repairs and rebuilding on the railroad lines furnishes employment for many thousand skilled mechanics.

The iron industry ranks among the largest in the State, both in the number of establishments and the capital invested. In reality this may be called one of the new industries, although the State has had a few establishments for many years. The first were engaged exclusively in building boilers and machinery for steamboats, and were the outgrowth of that industry. Iron works of various kinds are found in forty-seven Indiana cities and towns. These establishments manufacture engines, boilers and machinery of many kinds, bar iron and steel, structural iron, iron fences, wire nails and barbed wire, etc. The growth in number and of variety of product has been phenomenal since the discovery of natural gas. Some years ago several attempts were made to establish blast fur-

naces in the State, but the fact that the iron ore had to be brought from sections where coal was as abundant and cheap as in Indiana compelled the abandonment of the effort, and the last furnace went out of blast some years ago.

Among the new industries is the manufacture of glass, which, within fifteen years, has assumed enormous proportions, and now employs several thousand men. Before the discovery of natural gas there was but one establishment in the State, and that was engaged exclusively in the making of plate glass. In 1900 there were 110, manufacturing window glass, bottles, fruit jars, art glass, lamp chimneys, table ware and other articles. Indiana has the proud distinction of being the first State in this country to manufacture plate glass successfully; in fact, it was the enterprise, pluck and perseverance of a native of the State—Washington C. DePauw, of New Albany—that demonstrated to the world that plate glass could be profitably made in America, and that, too, after several attempts had been made in other States and failed. The history of the introduction of the manufacture of plate glass in America is a very interesting and instructive one.

Prior to 1865 the plate glass of the world was manufactured in Belgium, France and England. Its manufacture had been originally confined to Belgium, but when Colbert was the Minister of Louis XIV, he caused it to be introduced into France, and maintained it there both by large government subsidies and by prohibitory laws against its importation. Its importation into France was practically forbidden until 1860. England followed the lead of France in aiding the introduction of the industry into that country. The government for many years paid a large royalty on every foot of glass manufactured. A heavy import duty was also levied upon the glass manufactured in other countries. In 1865 the price of plate glass in the United States was two dollars and fifty cents per foot.

The time seemed ripe to introduce its manufacture into this country, as the United States had become a large consumer of plate glass, and after a careful examination of the matter some New York and Boston capitalists built a plant at Lenox, Massachusetts. Within five years they were compelled to go into bankruptcy, having lost \$1,100,000. The foreign makers had largely reduced the price, so

much so that the American concern could not compete with them. The next effort was by some Pennsylvania capitalists, who established a plant in Philadelphia. They did not fare any better than their New York and Boston predecessors, except in the fact that they abandoned their attempt after losing \$500,000. A plant was then started at Louisville, which made a brave struggle and failed twice before it finally succumbed to the inevitable. A loss of \$400,000 was incurred in this enterprise. Another attempt was made at Jeffersonville, but it had no better success than the others, and at last resulted in bankruptcy, after losing \$300,000.

An effort had been made to establish a plant at New Albany. In this Mr. DePauw was interested. He took some of the stock and loaned the concern a large amount of money. It was a losing venture like all the others. It was not long before all the capital, \$300,000, had been sunk, and an additional loss of as much more had been incurred. Mr. DePauw kept putting more and more money into it, until he had invested nearly half of his large fortune. He took direction of the business himself, and the syndicate of foreign manufacturers sent him word that he had better stop and pocket his losses, or they would bankrupt him, as they had all others who had attempted to manufacture plate glass in this country.

This threat only spurred him to new efforts, and at last, in 1879, after he had lost more than \$600,000, he finally solved the problem and proved that plate glass could be made in this country at a profit. It was a great triumph for the pluck and energy of a citizen of Indiana.

Another industry which the opening up of the gas field brought to the State, and which has become very extensive, is the manufacture of tin-plate.

Perhaps the greatest industry in the amount of capital employed and the value of the output, is the packing of meats. The largest establishments are at Hammond, Lake County, and at Indianapolis. The growth of these industries has been enormous within the last few years.

The manufacture of encaustic tile, pottery and terra cotta also furnishes employment for a large amount of capital, and annually adds materially to the wealth of the State. The clays of Indiana promise large yields to the in-

vestor. Clays of the greatest commercial value are found in almost every County, and this is especially true of the Counties having coal measures. These clays have just begun to be utilized, and when their value becomes thoroughly understood large capital will be invested in working them.

During the last ten years an enormous expansion of the clay industries has taken place in the United States. One of the problems of municipal government has been that of street paving, and nearly all materials have been tested. The use of vitrified brick for street paving has created a distinctively new industry, and brought into commercial use the clays and shales. Thousands of miles of brick pavements have been laid within the last few years. Prior to 1896 the cities and towns of Indiana, exclusive of Indianapolis, had expended \$850,000 for paving brick, and of that amount \$650,000 went to Ohio and West Virginia, while Indiana has enough clay, of the best quality for such brick, to supply the whole country for many years. Millions of tons of shales and underclays, well fitted for making the best grades of paving brick, exist in the coal Counties of the State.

Architects and builders have been experimenting for a cheap structural material, to take the place of the timber which is rapidly being exhausted, and the clays and shales are rapidly coming into use for such purposes. The use of encaustic tile for floors, of terra cotta and pressed brick for fronts, and of clay shingles for roofs, constantly increases, and no State in the Union is better supplied with the raw material for all these purposes than Indiana. Arches, culverts, bridges, and even houses, are now being built of a combination of clay and shale. Large factories have been recently erected at Brazil, Terre Haute, Clinton, Veedersburg, Cayuga and other towns for manufacturing clay products. Our clay industries are in their infancy, but they are capable of indefinite expansion. There is hardly a County in the State that does not contain large deposits of clays of great value. The time is not far distant when potteries, employing thousands of people and producing hundreds of thousands of dollars' worth of manufactured products, will be in full operation. The kaolins of Lawrence, Martin and Owen Counties are readily converted in-

to the better grades of ultramarine, for which there is always a large demand. For the investor the clays of Indiana offer a most promising field.

The first pottery made in Indiana within the knowledge of the present race was made by a Frenchman, who brought from his fatherland the skill that enabled him, while held as a captive by the Indians, to make friends of the savages by manufacturing for them many vessels for domestic use. This was done from the outcropping of fire clay found along Otter Creek in Clay and Vigo Counties. In the very early settlement of Indiana, and long before it became a State, numerous vessels were made from the surface clays by crude kilns, with rude jollies worked by foot treadles. While neither so good nor so durable as those made from fire clays, still they answered many conveniences of the early settlers. They were especially utilized as the receptacles for the abundant flow of sugar water so easily obtained throughout the greater portion of the State. Many of these earthen clay vessels still remain in use, though none are now manufactured.

In western Indiana, as early as 1825, white settlers began to make use of fire clay for the manufacture of what was then and still is termed stone-ware. The industry grew quite rapidly, so that in 1840 it was a very thriving one in Clay County; the wares reaching by trade distribution at that time nearly every community in the State. In 1853 there were twenty-four pottery kilns in Clay County alone and a few in adjoining Counties, all of which were taxed to their utmost capacity to supply the demand for their goods. From 1860 for almost thirty years the manufacture of fire clay stone-ware in Indiana gradually decreased, until less was made in 1890 than in 1853. During this period, however, occasional efforts were made to utilize the clays and shales for special purposes, and while the wares and goods produced were satisfactory, no great success attended such enterprises. At Hillsdale and Montezuma small plants were erected for making fire clay goods for refractive purposes in the construction of furnaces, crucibles, flues, and generally where heat resistance is sought. At Montezuma a clay roofing tile factory was also operated with success so far as related to the quality of the goods produced. A factory at Brazil was operated,

making a great variety of fire clay goods, from a tobacco pipe to a huge brown jug, and lining for the smallest to the largest crucibles.

Men have engaged in the manufacture of clay goods in Indiana without any knowledge of the necessary elementary conditions and the influences necessary for financial success. One of our factories was guilty of shipping raw material from points in Pennsylvania and transporting fuel at a heavy freightage, ignorant of the fact that almost within a stone's throw immense quantities of superior raw material were to be had at a nominal cost. This was true while long established factories, in a successful effort to keep to the front with fine goods, were shipping Indiana clay into Pennsylvania. However, in our most recent history, a great change has been wrought. In 1889 the Brazil Brick & Pipe Company and the Indiana Paving Company, of Brazil, were organized, and erected and equipped two factories at an expense of over \$75,000 each. The first manufactured vitrified machine-made terra cotta, hollow building blocks, electric conduits, etc.; the second principally vitrified paving goods. The successful operation of these two plants marks an epoch in Indiana's clay manufacturing. Other large plants immediately followed and old ones took on new life, energy and capital, so that ten large plants at Brazil, four near Montezuma, and one each at Terre Haute, Evansville, New Albany, Veedersburg and Clinton, are now operating with a combined capital of nearly two millions of dollars. In the product of these factories is to be found every variety of vitrified clay and shale, or so-called stone-ware goods, for ornamental and plain construction, for domestic and household purposes, as well as that of which the most durable streets and the largest and finest buildings in the world have been, and are now, made. The high art tile for inside decoration, the bric-a-brac for the mantel, and the service for the table, and the aluminum in all its varied uses, are among the products wrought from Indiana clay.

Recent experiments have demonstrated that vitrified brick is a most valuable material for foundations. For sewer purposes, they are superior to almost any other material. Machine-made terra cotta was first produced in Indiana, and the several-cored vitrified conduits and hollow

vitrified arch blocks are Indiana inventions. The conduits are extensively used for grounding telegraph and telephone wires, and the arch blocks are rapidly taking the place of wooden bridges and culverts on the highways. Vitrified fence posts, which withstand both fire and wind, are made for prairie fencing. These are only a few of the uses to which the clay products are now put.

LIME AND CEMENT.

Among the great industries of the State may be classed the manufacture of lime and cement. By an unfortunate bestowal of a name, the impression got abroad that Louisville, Kentucky, is the great center for the manufacture of cement, in this section of the country. It is known as "Louisville" and "Portland" cement, but nearly all of it is manufactured in Indiana. Clark County is especially prominent in this industry. Thousands of barrels are manufactured annually in that County, and the industry is spreading into others.

In Wabash, Huntington, Carroll and other Counties, immense quantities of lime are burned. Although these two industries have grown to great proportions, they are yet practically in their infancy. Indiana lime and cement now rank as the best in the country.

CHAPTER XXIII.

CIVIL ADMINISTRATIONS.

The Territorial form of government affairs was first administered by Governor Arthur St. Clair, Winthrop Sargent, Secretary, and a Board of Judges. Very arbitrary powers were given to the Governor in those early years of our political existence. He appointed all subordinate officers and made grants of lands, and no law could become operative without his consent. His veto was absolute, and from it there was no appeal. Although for thirteen years St. Clair was Governor of the Territory, he exercised little authority in Indiana, for there was little need for it. The only white settlement in Indiana was at Vincennes, and it numbered only a hundred or two families. Before he came into this part of his jurisdiction he sent Colonel Josiah Harmer to represent him, and to look over the situation. Colonel Harmer found neither laws nor courts. Magistrates were appointed and some sort of civil government was established. St. Clair had little time for anything else than fighting or negotiating with the Indians. He found them in possession of all the land, and not inclined to give it up. From 1787 until 1800 there was almost a continuous warfare with the Indians. One expedition after another was sent out, and they almost universally ended in disaster to the whites, until Anthony Wayne took command of the troops. In 1800, William Henry Harrison, who had been Secretary of the Northwest Territory for a short time, and then Territorial delegate in Congress, was made Governor of Indiana Territory, but did not reach Vincennes, the capital of the Territory, for several months.

during which time John Gibson acted as Governor. The latter was a man of sound judgment and great discretion and firmness. He had lived several years among the Indians, and knew their characteristics, and was remarkably successful in his dealings with them. He had spent nearly his whole life on the frontiers, and was just the man to organize and control frontiersmen.

Not long after active hostilities broke out between the United States and Great Britain in 1812, Governor Harrison again took the field, and General Gibson became acting Governor. It was the most critical period of the political existence of the Territory, and a firm hand and a cool head were needed. They were both found in General Gibson. The Indians were decidedly hostile, and prompt and energetic measures were taken. Aid was asked from Kentucky, and several hundred of her valiant citizens came hurrying to the defense of the infant commonwealth, just as fifty years later Indiana went to the rescue of Kentucky when that State was invaded by the Confederate forces. The Delaware Indians were disposed to remain at peace and keep faith with the Americans, but a body of Kentucky volunteers started toward the Delaware villages for the purpose of destroying them. General Gibson issued the following letter of instructions to Colonel Robertson, who was in command of the expedition:

"Vincennes, September the 9th, 1812.

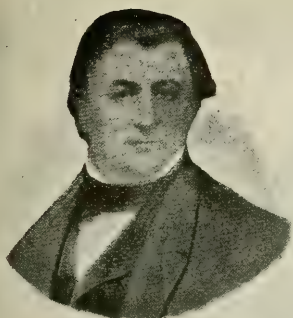
"Sir:—I have just been informed that a body of men have undertaken an expedition against the Delaware towns, under the impression that the Delawares had done or countenanced the murders which have been committed on the frontiers of Clark County. I have official information that the great body of the Delaware tribes are now in council at Piqua, with commissioners appointed by the President, to hold a treaty with the Indians, or such of them as wish to remain the friends of the United States. They being under the immediate protection of the United States, I do hereby forbid all citizens of this Territory from proceeding against the Delawares without permission from the Government, assuring you, at the same time, that no person will be more willing to punish them than myself if they are found to be guilty."

General Gibson had a watchful care over the interests

of the settlers, and he did not propose to have those interests jeopardized by an unwarranted war on the Indians by irresponsible bands of whites. He continued to act as Governor until Mr. Posey was appointed to that position. Throughout the trying times he was firm, judicious and careful.

The last session of the Territorial Legislature held at Vincennes convened on the 1st of February, 1813. Governor Harrison was away in command of the western army, and General Gibson was acting Governor. In his message to the Legislature, among other things, the General said:

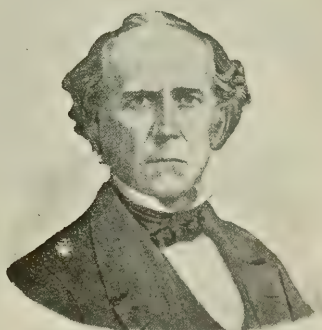
"The Governor of the Territory having been for some time absent from us, the gubernatorial functions consequently devolving upon, have been exercised by me. In my discharge of this important trust, I have been actuated by none other than a wish to preserve public rights and protect private property. If I have, at any time, failed in my official duties, or erred in my plans, you must attribute it to the head and not to the heart. My address to you, gentlemen, shall be laconic, for I am not an orator, nor accustomed to set speeches; and did I possess the abilities of a Cicero or Demosthenes, I could not portray in more glowing colors, our foreign and domestic political situation, than it is already experienced within our own breasts. The United States have been, compelled by frequent acts of injustice, to declare war against England. I say compelled, for I am convinced from the pacific and agricultural disposition of her citizens, that it must be a case of the last necessity that would induce such a measure. For the detailed causes of the war, I beg leave to refer you, gentlemen, to the message of his excellency, the President, to Congress at the commencement of the present session. It is highly worthy the serious perusal of the sage and the patriot. It does honor to the head and heart of Mr. Madison. Although I am not an admirer of wars in the general, yet, as we are now engaged in a necessary and justifiable one, I can exultingly say that I am happy to see, in my advanced days, our little but inimitable navy riding triumphant upon the seas; but chagrined to find that our armies by land are so little successful. The spirit of '76 appears to have fled from our continent; or, if not fled, is at least asleep



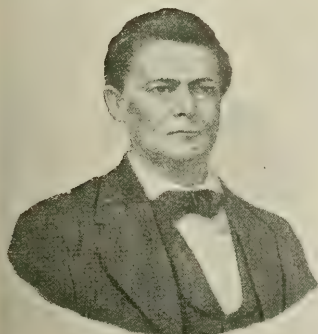
PARIS C. DUNNING.



ASIBEL P. WILLARD.



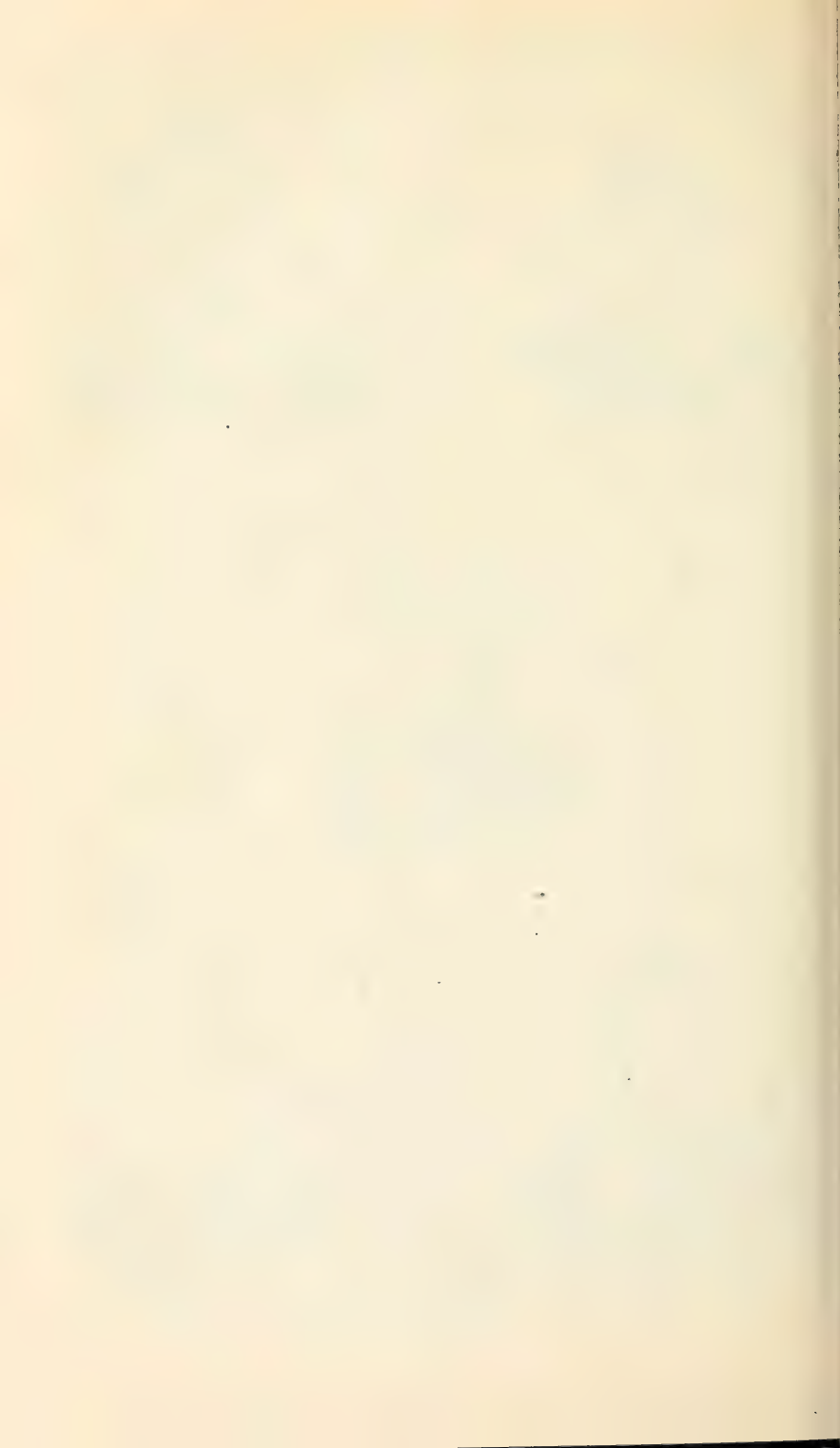
JOSEPH A. WRIGHT.



ABRAM A. HAMMOND.



HENRY S. LANE.



for it appears not to pervade our armies generally. On the contrary, lassitude—and, too often, schisms—have crept in and usurped the place of patriotic ardor.

“At your last assemblage, gentlemen, our political horizon seemed clear; our infant territory bid fair for rapid and rising grandeur; our population was highly flattering; our citizens were becoming prosperous and happy; and security dwelt everywhere, even on our frontiers. But, alas! the scene has changed; and whether this change, as it respects our territory, has been owing to an over anxiety in us to extend our dominions, or a wish for retaliation by our foes, or to a foreign influence, I shall not attempt to decide. But that there is a change, and that, too, a distressing one, is evident. For the aborigines, our former neighbors and friends, have become our most inveterate foes. They have drawn the scalping knife and raised the tomahawk, and shouts of savage fury are heard at our thresholds. Our former frontiers are now our wilds, and our inner settlements have become frontiers. Some of our best citizens, and old men, worn down with age, and helpless women, and innocent babes, have fallen victims to savage cruelty. Our citizens, even in our towns, have frequent alarms and constant apprehensions as to their preservation. I have not been inattentive to my duty, gentlemen, but have hitherto, and shall continue to exert every nerve to afford to our citizens all possible protection, and it is to be hoped that the all-wise and powerful Creator and Governor of the Universe will not forget His people, but cover us from our savage and sanguinary foe by His benign interposition.”

It was at this session of the Legislature that the capital of the Territory was changed from Vincennes to Corydon. During the year the Territory was in a bad way for defense against the Indians, as the General Government could do, or would do, little, while a large number of the able-bodied men had been taken away to defend other points from the enemy. An inadequately organized and armed militia was all the dependence the people had for defense.

In thus following the actions of General Gibson, we have necessarily wandered, somewhat, from the thread of the narrative of civil administrations, and must glance at

the administration of Governor Harrison. He arrived at Vincennes on the 10th of January, 1801, and at once assumed control and direction of affairs. His administration was an eventful one. He was given wide latitude in dealing with the Indians. His instructions were to maintain peace if possible, and to use every exertion to get the Indians to surrender their title to the lands in the Territory, and from the very beginning of his administration to its close he was in almost constant treaty with some of the various tribes. During much of his administration he had a stormy time politically. He was surrounded by a faction or cabal of men who endeavored to use him to promote their own political ambitions, while others were as deeply hostile to him, and made every effort to break him down.

During his administration the Territory passed to the second stage of Territorial Government, and it was while that question was being agitated the most determined effort to secure a repeal of the anti-slavery clause of the Ordinance of 1787 was made. Governor Harrison favored the introduction of slavery, and used all his powers to create a sentiment in favor of that institution. Had he not been cool-headed he would have been overwhelmed by the opposition to him, but the people believed in him, and in his honesty and patriotism. Upon assuming the duties of Governor he appointed William McIntosh Territorial Treasurer, and John Rice Jones Attorney General. These men afterward became very bitter enemies of the Governor and traduced him systematically. They resorted to the newspapers and filled their columns with charges against General Harrison. A libel suit followed, in which the Governor obtained a judgment for \$4000 against McIntosh. During the whole administration of Governor Harrison the Indians were more or less troublesome, and he was finally compelled to call out the militia to punish the followers of the Prophet, which he did at Tippecanoe. The people of Indiana never lost their affection for Governor Harrison, and both times when he was a candidate for President gave him the electoral vote of the State.

Governor Harrison was followed by General Thomas Posey, who at the time of his appointment was a Senator from Louisiana. The Territory had few inhabitants, and the outlook was not very encouraging, yet here was a man

who was willing to give up a seat in the United States Senate to become its Governor. Since then the Territory has blossomed into an empire, yet men seek the Governorship only as a stepping-stone to the Senate. Times have changed. General Posey entered upon the discharge of his duties as Governor in May, 1813, and on the 6th of the next December delivered his first message to the Legislature. His health was very poor, and during his service as Governor he resided most of the time at Jeffersonville for the benefit of medical treatment from Louisville. This at first caused some friction between the Governor and the Legislature. The first session of the Legislature, under his administration, completed its labors on the 4th of January, 1814. Under the old rule the Legislature could not adjourn itself, but had to be prorogued by the Governor. On this occasion the Governor was not at Corydon when the Legislature concluded its labors on the 4th, and it waited to hear from him until the 6th, when it passed the following preamble and resolution:

“Whereas, Both houses of the Legislature did, on the 4th inst., inform the Governor that they had gone through their legislative business, and were ready to be prorogued; and

“Whereas, The expense of near fifty dollars per day doth arise to the people of the Territory by reason of the Legislature being kept in session—all of which evils and inconvenience doth arise from the Governor leaving the seat of government during the session of the Legislature and going to Jeffersonville, and the Legislature having to send their committee of enrolled bills to that place to lay them before him for his approval and signature; be it therefore

“Resolved, That in order to prevent any further expense accruing to the Territory at the present session, that the President of the Legislative Council and the Speaker of the House of Representatives be and are hereby authorized to receive the report of the Governor of the bills by him signed or rejected, and his order of prorogation, and communicate the same to the clerks of the respective houses, who shall insert the same in their journals in the same manner as if the two houses were in session.”

The Legislature then adjourned itself without day. It

will be seen that in those early days the legislators were anxious to save all possible expense to the people. In this, also, times have changed somewhat. The last session of the Territorial Legislature began at Corydon on the first Monday of December, 1815. At that session a petition to Congress was adopted, asking that Indiana be admitted into the Union as a State, and steps were ordered to have a census of the population taken. Governor Posey was still very much afflicted, and his health required him to remain at Jeffersonville. He could not even attend the opening of the session and sent his message by his private secretary. By this time the members had got more in sympathy with the Governor, and in its response to his message said:

"They [the Legislature] cannot refrain from declaring their perfect approbation of your official conduct as Governor of this Territory. During your administration many evils have been remedied, and we particularly admire the calm, dispassionate, impartial conduct which has produced the salutary effects of quieting the violence of party spirit, harmonizing the interests as well as the feelings of the different parties of the Territory. Under your auspices we have become one people."

The violence of party spirit referred to was that which had grown up over the slavery question. During the administration of Governor Harrison that distinguished officer had striven, with all his might, to induce Congress to repeal the clause of the Ordinance of 1787 forbidding involuntary servitude. He had been the leader of the proslavery faction, and the spirit of opposition had grown very bitter. Governor Posey, on the other hand, accepted the Ordinance as it stood, and advised all to acquiesce in it. When he took his office the war with Great Britain was at its height. The active measures taken by General Harrison had, however, practically removed the war from the borders of Indiana, but still roaming bands of hostile Indians occasionally committed depredations, and kept the people in a state of continued uneasiness, and mounted rangers had to be maintained:

Within sixteen years Indiana had grown from a population of a few hundred, to one of more than sixty thousand. and that, too, in the face of almost continual hostility from the Indian tribes residing in the Territory, arising from

their claims to the land. By the treaty of Greenville, a small tract of land at the Falls of the Ohio, another at Vincennes, a third at the Wabash portage, and still another at the head of the Maumee, and a narrow strip from Fort Recovery to the mouth of the Kentucky River, comprised all the land ceded to the whites. All the rest of the domain was reserved by the Indian tribes. Other cessions were made from time to time, under the administration of Governor Harrison, but still at the time Indiana was admitted into the Union, less than one-fourth of the State had been relinquished to the whites. In 1810 there were but four Counties in the State, with a total population of 24,520. During the next six years nine additional Counties were organized. Notwithstanding Indiana was inhabited by several strong and war-like Indian tribes, the settlers suffered far less from depredations than did those in either Kentucky or Ohio, and much of the credit for that belongs to the men who controlled civil affairs.

In April, 1816, Congress passed an enabling act preparatory to the admission of Indiana into the Union as a State. A census of the Territory disclosed a population of more than the sixty thousand required by the Ordinance of 1787.

An election was ordered for delegates to a convention, to frame and promulgate a constitution, and another for a Governor, Lieutenant Governor, members of the Legislature and members of Congress. The opposing candidates for Governor were Thomas Posey and Jonathan Jennings, then delegate in Congress. The election was held on the first Monday of August, and Mr. Jennings was elected Governor, Christopher Harrison, Lieutenant Governor, and William Hendricks, member of Congress. Although the State was not finally admitted into the Union until December 11, the first Legislature elected under the new constitution began its session on the 7th of November, when Jonathan Jennings took the oath of office as Governor. By the constitution Governors were elected for a term of three years, and the other State officers, with the exception of Lieutenant Governor, were chosen by the Legislature. Governor Jennings, in his opening message to the General Assembly, said:

“The result of your deliberations will be considered as

indicative of the future character of the State, as well as of the future happiness of its citizens. The reputation of the State, as well as its highest interest, will require that a just and generous policy toward the general government, and a due regard to the rights of its members respectively, should invariably have their proper influence. In the commencement of the State government the shackles of the colonial should not be forgotten in our limited exertions to prove, by happy experience, that a uniform adherence to the first principles of our government, and a virtuous exercise of its powers, will best secure efficiency to its measures and stability to its character. Without a frequent recurrence to those principles, the administration of the government will imperceptibly become more and more arduous, until the simplicity of our republican institutions may eventually be lost in dangerous expedients and political designs. Under every free government the happiness of the citizens must be identified with their morals; and while a constitutional exercise of their rights shall continue to have its due weight in the discharge of the duties required of the constitutional authorities of the State, too much attention cannot be bestowed to the encouragement and promotion of every moral virtue, and to the enactment of laws calculated to restrain the vicious, and prescribe punishment for every crime commensurate to its enormity. In measuring, however, to each crime its adequate punishment it will be well to recollect that the certainty of punishment has generally the surest effect to prevent crime; while punishments unnecessarily severe, too often produce the acquittal of the guilty, and disappoint one of the great objects of legislation and good government. . . . The dissemination of useful knowledge will be indispensably necessary as a support of morals, and as a restraint of vice; and on this subject it will only be necessary to direct your attention to the plan of education as prescribed by the constitution."

Mr. Jennings served as Governor for six years, and during his administration the Legislature mainly directed its efforts to putting on the full habiliments of Statehood. Among its first duties was that of filling the other State offices, and electing two members of the United States Sen-

ate. Robert A. New was elected Secretary of State, W. H. Lilly, Auditor, and Daniel C. Lane, Treasurer. James Noble and Waller Taylor were chosen Senators. The laws were codified and made applicable to the State Government. A number of laws were passed on various subjects; courts were established and their jurisdiction defined, and the Bank of Vincennes was adopted as a State Bank and was authorized to establish a number of branches. Commissioners were appointed to select a site for the permanent capital of the State. The slavery question continued to cause considerable concern. Notwithstanding involuntary servitude had been forbidden by the Ordinance of 1787, and again by the State constitution, slaves were openly held, and efforts were continued to introduce slavery under the disguise of apprentices. In his first message to the Legislature Governor Jennings thus referred to the subject:

"I recommend to your consideration the propriety of providing by law, to prevent more effectually any unlawful attempts to seize and carry into bondage persons of color, legally entitled to their freedom; and, at the same time, as far as practicable, to prevent those who rightfully owe service to the citizens of any other State or territory from seeking within the limits of this State a refuge from the possession of their lawful owners. Such a measure will tend to secure those who are free from any unlawful attempts (to enslave them) and secure the rights of the citizens of the other States and territories as far as ought reasonably be respected."

Even at that early day it appears Indiana was a favorite refuge for runaway slaves. In 1817 the Governor of Kentucky addressed a letter to Governor Jennings, complaining that escaping slaves were being received and concealed by citizens of Indiana, and loudly protesting against such practices. To this letter Governor Jennings gave a courteous reply, and then submitted it to the Legislature. That body referred it to a committee which made a lengthy report, from which the following is condensed:

"On the subject of the difficulties said to be experienced by the citizens of Kentucky in regaining their fugitive slaves, your committee are of the opinion that the feelings of his Excellency, as well as of the Legislature of Kentucky, have been governed in a great degree by the im-

proper representations of individuals who have been disappointed in their attempts to carry away those whom they claim as slaves from this State, without complying with the preliminary steps required by law, together with the groundless assertions of unprincipled individuals who have attempted, in many instances, to seize and carry away people of color, as slaves, who were free and as much entitled to the protection of the laws as any citizen of Indiana. . .

. . . It is a well known fact that, whatever may be the opinion of our citizens on the abstract principles of slavery, and however repugnant it may appear, in their estimation, to the principles of moral justice, there is but one sentiment prevalent on this subject of people of color migrating, in any circumstances, to this State. It is believed, if not restricted, it would, in time, become an evil of not much less magnitude than slavery itself. . . . Your committee in the further prosecution of the duties assigned them, will take into consideration the laws on the subject of slaves escaping into this State, as well as the laws for the punishment of the crime of man stealing, and, if it shall be found that any new provisions are necessary on these subjects, they will form the subjects of future reports."

The question of internal improvements also occupied the attention of the Legislature during the administration of Governor Jennings. The State was rapidly filling up with population, but the lack of means to transport the surplus products to market was delaying immigration. No roads had been built anywhere in the State, except a few that had only been cleared of the trees, and the settlements were still largely confined to the neighborhood of water courses. In August, 1822, before the expiration of his second term, Governor Jennings was elected to Congress from the second district, and the unexpired portion of his term as Governor was filled by Lieutenant Governor Ratliff Boon.

Sometime, but just when is uncertain, during the administration of Governor Jennings, the monstrosity that has been used as a State seal ever since was brought forth. Just who is responsible for it is now unknown. The constitution of 1816 gave the Governor the right to use his own private seal until one for the State was adopted. The Legislature of that year, the first under the State constitution,

authorized the Governor to adopt a design and procure a seal for the use of the State. No record of legislative action adopting the seal can be found. It is wholly meaningless, and a glaring absurdity. In 1895 the Legislature passed a resolution looking to the adoption of a new design, but like many another good project, it has fallen by the wayside, and the buffalo with head down and tail erect still ornaments all the official documents of the State.

William Hendricks was elected Governor in 1822, but before his time was out he was sent to the United States Senate. During his administration as Governor the people were struggling under the load of business depression following 1820, and little of moment was done by the Legislature, except advancing the cause of education. During the administration of Governor James Brown Ray, which extended from 1825 to 1831, many marked changes took place. Legislation in the cause of education was still further advanced, and some notable works of internal improvements were started, although no general system was adopted. A road from the Ohio River to Lake Michigan was designed, and later by the personal influence of Governor Noble a section of land for every mile of the road was given by the Indians. It was an era of prosperity for the State. Abundant crops, and increasing business development throughout the whole country, materially aided in the development of the new State. On this subject Governor Ray, in his message to the Legislature in 1825, said:

"All that the most ardent could rationally wish for has fallen within the lap of the State. The history of other nations furnishes us with no parallel for our gigantic growth. 'A wonder among wonders' our amazing young State, with each annual revolution of the earth, seems destined by the force of circumstances and the energies of her people, to outstrip the geographer with all his sagacity; to develop some dormant treasure, and to exhibit to public view some fascinating projects eminently calculated to attach our citizens to their homes and country, and to enable us to look prospectively to the period when we shall be among the first in power, wealth, and respectability in the grand confederation of North American States."

In 1827 he said:

"When we bring in review before us the successive cur-

rents of immigration which annually penetrate the deep recesses of the western forests; when we behold the generous efforts of the enlightened statesman and philanthropist for the establishment of primary and higher schools that education may be equal and universal; when we witness the enterprise and industry of the people, their morality and order, the conclusion follows that all essential elements are concentrating to prosecute and consummate the great design of the social compact."

Governor Ray was an enthusiast on the subject of internal improvement, and never let an opportunity go by to urge the matter on the attention of the Legislature and the people. More clearly than any other public man of that day, he foresaw the possibilities before the young commonwealth. He never tired of presenting a picture in which Indianapolis would be the center from which railroads would radiate in every direction, with villages at intervals of five miles, towns at ten miles and respectable cities at twenty miles. His dream has been more than realized. Governor Ray was also ardent in urging upon the Legislature the adoption of some scheme to better care for the poor and unfortunate of the State. He devoted more or less space in all his messages to the subject, but in his last he was thus urgent:

"Let the philanthropist but look at home for opportunities to display his pious benevolence, and his eye will recognize many a friendless and moneyless orphan child, whose soul only waits to be kindled into flame upon education's heavenly altar, that he may leave his rags and wretchedness behind him, and, wielding the sword of the hero, or the pen of the statesman, by the force of moral precept in the pulpit, or of eloquence at the bar, or in the senate, rise to the noblest summits of fame and become a pillar of support to his country—but without some aid is doomed to die unseen. . . . Whilst our own unfortunate poor are sold in the public streets to the highest bidder, many of whom have seen days that possessed them with the means and rank far above their purchasers, now compelled to feed upon the crumbs of a scanty meal, and to experience, after a life well spent, just as their sun is setting, their worst days, and even the degradation of mas-

tery, and the separation of kindred ties; and while thousands of families are without the word of truth; and tens of thousands of youths, who must soon take the reins of this mighty Republic into their hands, are fast rising to maturity, without sufficient intelligence for the stupendous business of self government, we are admonished by everything sacred and dear to look first to the deranged concerns at home."

It may be admitted that the above is florid and prolix in style, but the sentiment of the philanthropist and the statesman is there. It was in 1825, during the administration of Governor Ray, that the Marquis de Lafayette visited the State. During Ray's administration most of the lands still held by the Indians were ceded to the Government. As a rule the laws were promptly and equitably enforced, and peace and prosperity reigned. The Wabash and Erie canal had been projected, and it was thought that in the near future the Lakes and the Mississippi would be joined by a grand system of water communication.

In December, 1831, Noah Noble took his seat as Governor, and occupied that office during the next six years. It was under his administration the great system of internal improvements was entered upon. The question of internal improvements was the issue in the campaign of 1831, and Mr. Noble, as their strong advocate, was elected. A hundred different projects were brought forward, but Governor Noble wisely insisted that none should be undertaken except those which promised the greatest good to the greatest number of the citizens. Congress had given a magnificent grant of land to aid in the building of the Wabash and Erie Canal, and soon after the induction of Governor Noble into office that great work was begun.

The Legislature finally evolved an elaborate system of works, embracing canals, railroads and turnpikes. Bonds were issued and sold, and the State entered upon an ephemeral era of prosperity. One of the first matters of public interest under Governor Noble's administration was the building of a State House. Prior to that time the Legislature had been holding its sessions in the Court House of Marion County. When Indianapolis was laid off and declared to be the capital of the State, the Legislature gave to the County a plot of ground on which to erect a Court

House, and appropriated eight thousand dollars toward the erection of a building, on the agreement that the State should have the right to use the building for a meeting place of the Legislature for a period of fifty years. But the State had grown rapidly, and it was felt that it ought to have a building of its own. In 1832 the sum of fifty-eight thousand dollars was appropriated to build a State House. It was completed in time for the session of the Legislature in December, 1835. It was occupied until 1877, when the present building was begun.

One thing stood in the way of the construction of the great system of internal improvements that was contemplated and so earnestly desired, and that was the claims the Indians still held to a large part of the lands in the State. In 1831 the Legislature petitioned Congress to take steps to extinguish the Indian claims, and a commission for that purpose was appointed. The Pottawattamies readily sold their claims and agreed to remove from the State, but the Miamis steadfastly refused, and it was not until some years later that their claims were extinguished. In 1834, under Governor Noble's administration, the State Bank was chartered, the history of which is given in another chapter. The establishment of this bank, and the excellent terms made for the sale of internal improvement bonds, furnished the money for the beginning of the internal improvements which were finally agreed upon in 1836. Although this work was advocated by his predecessor, still Governor Noble can rightly be called the author of the system.

During the remainder of his term of office work on all the improvements was pushed with great vigor, and few if any, anticipated the crash that was so soon to come. While occupied in devising and pushing forward a grand system of public works, neither the Governor nor the Legislature was inattentive to the cause of education. By the act establishing the State Bank, provision was made for what proved to be a very large permanent fund for the cause of popular education, and in 1836, when Congress divided among the States the surplus revenue fund, the Legislature of Indiana set apart \$573,502.96 of its share to become a part of the permanent school fund.

The next two Governors served but one term each—

David Wallace, from 1837 to 1840, and Samuel Bigger, from 1840 to 1843. When Governor Wallace entered upon the discharge of the duties of his office the great system of internal improvements was tottering to its fall. The people were beginning to realize that the State had undertaken far too great a work. The improvements were being made on credit, and the interest on the debt had to be met, and everything indicated it would be many years after their completion before the revenues derived from them would be sufficient to meet the interest charges, to say nothing of providing a fund for the ultimate extinguishment of the principal. Then, too, the building of the works had brought into the State a vast amount of the depreciated paper currency of other States, which had practically driven out the sound money. The people were beginning to murmur at the taxation required, and at the depreciation of prices following the great speculative mania of the preceding years. Governor Wallace had been an advocate of the internal improvement system, but he early saw the coming collapse. In his message to the Legislature in 1838 he said:

“The truth is, and it would be folly to conceal it, we have our hands full—full to overflowing! and, therefore, to sustain ourselves, to preserve the credit and character of the State unimpeached, and to continue her hitherto unexampled march to wealth and distinction, we have not an hour of time, nor a dollar of money, nor a hand employed in labor, to squander and dissipate upon mere objects of idleness, or taste, or amusement.”

The interest charge on the State was something more than \$200,000 annually, and there was no money with which to meet it, except what had been obtained by the sale of bonds. Thus the State was paying compound interest, a policy certain to bring financial ruin. Suddenly the whole system of public works was abandoned—the State had no money with which to pay contractors, and many of them took advantage of this fact to abandon the work, without paying the dues of the laborers. Widespread ruin followed. The State owed many bills, which could not be met, and in 1839 the Legislature issued \$1,500,000 of State scrip, bearing six per cent. interest, and receivable for taxes. This scrip soon sold far below par,

and failed to remedy in the slightest the prevailing distress.

In 1832 the Pottawattamies ceded their lands in the State to the Government, but when the time came for them to remove west of the Mississippi River, they refused to go, and became very troublesome. The militia was ordered out and, under command of General John Tipton, forced the refractory redskins to leave the State. The same year the Miamis ceded their lands and agreed to remove after three years. Governor Wallace was the first Governor of Indiana to appoint a day of thanksgiving.

When Governor Bigger entered upon the duties of his office he found a woeful state of affairs. The public works had been abandoned, the State was out of money, and the interest on the debt was due. The State debt amounted to more than \$18,000,000. The interest was defaulted and the credit of the State went down. Before closing this mention of the administration of Governor Bigger, which was unsuccessful from the very beginning, the Legislature proving wholly unable to contend with the tide of disaster, it should be noted that the Governor, under authority of the Legislature, compiled the general statutes of the State, and did it in such a satisfactory manner that the work was accepted by the General Assembly without question.

The administration of Governor James Whitcomb, extending from December, 1843, to December, 1848, witnessed a change for the better in the affairs of the State. Governor Whitcomb, before his elevation to the office, had opposed the system of internal improvements, and when he began his administration he found the State treasury practically bankrupt and the interest on the debt four years in arrears. The debt was too great for the State to bear. It was one that would have impoverished a much older and wealthier commonwealth, and Governor Whitcomb saw that the only hope for the State was in effecting a compromise of some kind with its creditors. The bonds of the State were mainly held in London, and negotiations were opened to see if some satisfactory arrangement could not be reached. Finally a settlement was agreed upon. The State transferred to its creditors the Wabash and Erie canal, together with the remaining lands granted by the General Government to aid in its construction, in dis-

charge of one-half of the State's indebtedness, and new bonds, bearing a lower rate of interest were issued for the remaining half, the State pledging its faith that the interest on the new bonds should be promptly met. To this end it was agreed that the State should maintain in the city of New York an agent, whose duty it should be to pay the interest as it became due. From that time Indiana never failed to meet its obligations. The debt has long since been altogether discharged.

This restoration of the State's credit brought prosperity again to the State and the people. Confidence was restored, and money once more became active. Manufactures began to appear in the State and the farmers were unusually prosperous. In 1846 the Mexican war called for volunteers and Governor Whitcomb gave his energies to filling the quota of Indiana. Governor Whitcomb was a man of very positive convictions, and during his administration became involved in a controversy with the Senate that for a while threatened to impair his popularity. It was over the appointment of Judges of the Supreme Court, the details of which are given in another chapter. In 1848 Governor Whitcomb was elected to the United States Senate, and Lieutenant Governor Paris C. Dunning served the unexpired term.

The administration of Governor Joseph A. Wright, one of the most eventful in the history of the State, lasted seven years, from 1849 to 1857—three years under the old constitution and four under the new. When he succeeded Governor Whitcomb the State was rapidly recovering from the business depression which followed the collapse of the internal improvements. Most of the works which had been begun by the State were being completed by private corporations; plank and turnpike roads were being constructed in many parts of the State, and railroad building was being pushed with great vigor. Energy was displayed in every direction, and hope once more made the people buoyant. Never before had prospects been as bright as they were just then. The people of the State voted for the holding of a convention to revise the constitution, and it began its work in 1850. It was composed of able men, but of many conflicting opinions. The session of the Legislature which followed this convention was the longest in the

history of the State, and one of the most important. The Governor had two notable contests with the General Assembly. The first was over the passage of a general banking law, and the other over chartering the Bank of the State. Governor Wright vetoed both bills, but they were passed over his vetoes and became laws. He endeavored to prevent their execution by appealing to the courts, but was defeated.

One of the most important acts of the first Legislature was that for the promotion of education. It entirely revolutionized the system. It abolished the congressional townships and declared each civil township a township for school purposes, and gave the trustees thereof full control of educational matters in the township. It created a State Board of Education and authorized townships and incorporated cities to levy taxes for the support of schools. A commission was appointed to codify the laws and bring the statutes into harmony with the new constitution.

Among other things which tended to make the administration of Governor Wright eventful was the temperance legislation. From the days of the Territorial Government there had been more or less legislation on the temperance question. The first act on the subject was passed in 1807. For some years there was not much agitation of the subject, but as the population of the State increased it became of more vital importance. The attempt was made to handle it as a purely local question, one law being enacted for one County, or one Township, and another for other sections of the State. The laws, however, were uniformly in restraint of the traffic. The whole tenor of public sentiment seemed to be in favor of what in later times has been termed "local option." As an illustration of how legislation was enacted in those days the following measures passed in the single session of the Legislature in 1850 are given:

By an act approved January 19, it was provided that in Tippecanoe County an applicant for license to sell should be required to give bond to keep an orderly house and not to sell to minors under the age of eighteen.

By an act approved January 21, the laws requiring a license in Hancock County were repealed.

By an act approved January 19, it was provided that

any person selling without license in Decatur, Ripley, Jefferson, Dearborn, Henry, Union, Parke, Whitley and Huntington Counties, should be indicted, and the act of 1849 requiring a vote on the license question was extended to Morgan County.

By an act approved January 21, it was provided that in Parke, Monroe and Brown Counties the question of license should be submitted to a vote, and that no license should be granted in any township in which the majority of votes was against that proposition.

By an act approved January 21, a former act requiring a vote to be taken in Huntington County was repealed.

By an act approved January 21, the sale was prohibited within two miles of the postoffice in the town of Plainfield.

By an act approved January 17, the sale was forbidden in Mound township, Warren County, without procuring a tavern or grocery license.

By an act approved January 18, the town of Lewisville was authorized to pass an ordinance to effectually prevent the sale of liquors within the corporation.

By an act approved January 19, it was made unlawful to grant a license in the Counties of Gibson and Parke unless the majority of the voters thereof assented thereto at the August election.

By an act approved January 21, it was made unlawful to sell in quantities of less than thirty gallons in Jackson and Monroe townships, Madison County.

By an act approved January 19, no license could be granted in Kosciusko County, unless a majority of the voters should so declare at an election, and when such license was granted the applicant was required to give a bond in the sum of \$1000 conditioned to pay all damages the community or individuals might sustain from the traffic; to support all paupers, widows and orphans, made by the traffic, and to pay the expenses of civil and criminal prosecutions growing out of, or justly attributable to the traffic.

By an act approved January 21, it was made unlawful to sell in smaller quantities than 30 gallons in Blue River township, Jackson County.

By an act approved January 11, the sale was absolutely forbidden in Ripley township, Rush County.

By an act approved January 21, the law prohibiting the

sale in Wayne township, Henry County, was repealed and the question of license was to be submitted to a vote of the people.

It will be seen that there was neither uniformity nor stability in the laws during those days. One session of the General Assembly would prohibit the sale of intoxicants in some locality and the next session would take away the restriction. In 1853 a general law was enacted, but the local option feature was still predominant.

By this time a wave of temperance excitement was sweeping over the country. Maine had passed a law positively prohibiting the manufacture and sale of intoxicants in the State, and the prohibition fever was rising rapidly in all the other States. In Indiana the Democrats in their convention declared against prohibition. This was like applying a lighted match to a vast pile of very inflammable material. About the same time the courts decided a case that was fatal to the law of 1853. At once temperance orators sprang up everywhere. The pulpit, with singular unanimity, joined in the crusade. The Know Nothing party, which had come into existence on the death of the Whig party, was at that time making some stir. The renewal of the slavery agitation in Congress had also operated to recast party lines in the State. A convention was called of all the elements opposed to the Democratic party. It was composed of old Whigs, Know Nothings, Free Soil Democrats, and active temperance advocates. It declared in favor of prohibition. On that issue the two parties went into the campaign, the prohibitionists winning, electing their State ticket, and a majority in both branches of the Legislature. The result was the enactment of a prohibitory law. Governor Wright, though a Democrat, approved the law, and it went into effect. Its operation was peculiar. In some localities it was peacefully enforced, while in Indianapolis, and some of the other cities it caused numerous riots, and conflicts between the police and the opponents of the law. Finally, in 1855, one of the Judges of the Supreme Court held the law unconstitutional, and the fabric fell. This decision intensified the excitement for a while, but in the memorable campaign of the next year, the temperance question was overshadowed by that of slavery, it being the

first campaign in which one of the great parties stood directly opposed to slavery.

Governor Wright's term witnessed the death of the old Whig party, the birth and death of the Know Nothings, and the birth of the Republican party. It also witnessed several memorable contests on the slavery question. One or two of them at least are worthy of mention as showing the spirit of the times. The first was that of Miss Delia Webster. Miss Webster was a resident of Kentucky, and had served a term in the Kentucky penitentiary for inducing slaves to escape. On her release from prison she took up her residence in Kentucky, opposite the city of Madison. A number of slaves soon after escaped and she was indicted for assisting them. Before the warrants were served she escaped across the Ohio River to Madison. There she was arrested on a requisition given by the Governor. Before she could be conveyed across the river a writ of habeas corpus was asked for. Joseph G. Marshall appeared as her attorney, and by his eloquence so wrought upon the feelings of the people that they mobbed the Kentucky officers and drove them from the court house, they only saving their lives by rapid flight. The case caused intense excitement throughout the entire State, as well as in Kentucky. In the latter State armed bodies of men were raised with the avowed purpose of invading Indiana, but better counsels prevailed.

The other case was that of John Freeman, a colored man who had long been a resident of Indianapolis. A man by the name of Ellington, a resident of Missouri, laid claim to Freeman as his slave who had escaped from Kentucky. Freeman was arrested, but declared he was free, and had always been so; that he was born in Georgia, and from that State had come to Indiana, and that if permitted he could establish by overwhelming testimony that he was free. The anti-slavery element in Indianapolis rallied around him, and the case was fought for weeks in the courts. Men were sent to Georgia and brought back citizens of that State who identified Freeman, and who testified that they had known him from a boy. Others went to Kentucky, and from there traced the fugitive slave to Canada, and found him living in that country. For weeks Indianapolis was in a fever of excitement, and armed men pa-

trolled the streets near the jail to prevent Freeman from being carried away surreptitiously. At last the grand jury at Indianapolis returned an indictment against Ellington, charging him with perjury in swearing that Freeman was his slave. Ellington fled the State and Freeman was released. During the weeks that the case dragged along, the people of the entire State watched its course with the same eagerness with which a few years later they watched for the outcome of the John Brown raid on Harper's Ferry.

Governor Wright was succeeded by Ashbel P. Willard, the youngest man ever elected Governor of Indiana. His administration was not so eventful as that of his predecessor, yet it was a period of the most intense political excitement. The first session of the General Assembly was rather an unruly one. The overthrow of the Missouri Compromise, and the struggle that was going on in Kansas, had wrought parties up to the highest pitch. Quite a number who had been prominent among the leaders of the Democracy had severed their connection with that party on the slavery issue, while an equal number of the leaders of the old Whig party had cast in their fortunes with their ancient enemies. The fugitive slave law was a bone of contention, and the threats of the South to secede were already being heard. Signs were becoming definitely marked of a division in the Democratic party between the followers of the administration and the adherents of Mr. Douglas. The legislative session was a stormy one, and finally ended without passing the appropriation bills to defray the expenses of the State Government. Through this means the State defaulted the interest on its debt, or would have defaulted, had it not been for the prompt and patriotic action of Governor Willard. He reached the conclusion that no direct appropriation was necessary to pay the interest on the public debt; that the law providing for the settlement with the creditors made it incumbent on the State to pay that interest, and was, in fact, a perpetual appropriation. In an address to the people of the State, issued a few days after the adjournment of the Legislature, he foreshadowed his action in the following paragraph:

"By laws which were passed by previous legislatures, provision is made for sustaining every department of the Government excepting the benevolent institutions. The

tax is levied for the support of the common schools and two cents on each hundred dollars for the purpose of paying the principal of the public debt. As long as there is money in the Treasury belonging to the State, it is believed that there is authority to pay the interest on said debt. . . . Again, on the 19th day of January, 1846, the Legislature passed an act to provide for the funded debt of the State, in which your faith was solemnly pledged for the payment of the interest on the said debt, and on the 27th of January, 1847, another act of the Legislature was passed repeating the obligation given in the previous year to the creditors of Indiana. Ever since these acts were passed the State has maintained her faith and credit, the result of which has been to encourage the introduction of population and capital into the State."

Joseph E. McDonald was the Attorney General of the State, and he gave an opinion in which he held that no direct appropriation was necessary to authorize the payment of the interest; that the contract with the bondholders was a sufficient appropriation. In fact, from the time of the settlement of the debt with the bondholders, in 1846, the custom of the State officers had been to pay the interest without an appropriation, except in 1849, 1850, and 1851, when it was found necessary to borrow the money to meet the interest charges. In his address to the people, Governor Willard complained of the Legislature that it had failed to levy a tax with which to pay the interest. He was confronted with another problem. He believed he had a right to pay the interest without a direct appropriation, but there was no money in the treasury that could be used for that purpose. He did not hesitate or falter, but promptly borrowed the money necessary, pledging the honor of the State to reimburse the lender. He took the matter before the next Legislature, and there, after considerable discussion as to his right to borrow the money, his action was approved. No one questioned his right to pay the interest without an appropriation, but many doubted the right to borrow money without prior legislative action.

His troubles did not end there. The Legislature of 1857 also failed to make appropriations for the maintenance of the benevolent institutions. The faith of the State was not directly pledged to their support. The money was in the

treasury, but without a direct appropriation it could not be used. After considering the matter in every light the Governor reached the conclusion that he could not incur debts on the part of the State for their maintenance, and he reluctantly ordered them to be closed. He waited until 1858, giving time for the heated political passions to cool, and then called the Legislature together in special session, and once more the administration was furnished with the means to maintain itself.

The raid of John Brown on Harper's Ferry intensified the political feeling in the State. The breach between President Buchanan and Senator Douglas became wider than ever. In this State the Illinois Senator was decidedly the favorite, but the President had many adherents, the leaders being the two United States Senators—Bright and Fitch. Senator Fitch became involved in Washington in a personal controversy with Senator Douglas that came near ending in a hostile meeting according to the code. The meeting was prevented only by the interference of mutual friends. When elected, Governor Willard's physical health was poor, and before the expiration of his term of office failed entirely. In 1860 he went to Minnesota, hoping the bracing atmosphere of that section would benefit him, but he died at St. Paul, on October 3d, being the first Governor of the State to die in office. During the administration of both Governor Wright and Governor Willard the State experienced remarkable prosperity, except for the financial troubles brought on by the free banking system. Railroad building progressed rapidly, manufacturing industries were established and the commerce of the State was widely extended.

Lieutenant Governor Hammond acted as Governor during the brief remainder of Governor Willard's term. The war clouds were gathering when Governor Willard died. Henry S. Lane, who had been elected to succeed him, only served as Governor three days, when he resigned on being elected to the United States Senate. Lieutenant Governor Oliver P. Morton became acting Governor, and is perhaps the best known of all the Indiana executives. The war clouds were then gathering very thickly, and within a few weeks the storm burst. Governor Morton, however, before the war came, had set about working some needed reforms

in the administration of affairs. There had been for some years growing scandals in the management of the benevolent institutions, especially of the Blind Institute. Governor Morton called the attention of the Legislature to these and other abuses, and urged that reform should be inaugurated in every department of the State Government. Neither he nor the Legislature, however, had time to work out any great measure of reform before the outbreak of the war, and that, when it came, demanded all their powers, all their resources and energies. What Indiana did during the war is detailed in another part of this history, and only is referred to here as it had connection with the civil administration. Between the majority of the Legislature and the Chief Executive of the State there was perfect harmony, during the years 1861 and 1862. The work of one was supplemented by that of the other. The Legislature provided the funds with a liberal hand, and the Governor put forth extraordinary efforts in organizing, equipping and forwarding Indiana's quota of troops. The Legislature also provided for the organization and equipment of a strong force of militia for State defense.

During the regular session of the Legislature in 1861 a good deal of angry feeling among the members was displayed, owing to the heated condition of the public mind. In the special session, which was called just after the bombardment of Fort Sumter, this feeling was subdued at first, but before the session closed, it broke out with greater bitterness than ever, and several disgraceful scenes followed, one or two of which came near leading to hostile meetings between the participants. As a rule, however, the members were very favorably disposed to grant the Governor all the power necessary for a vigorous effort to support the National Government. Arrangements were made for effecting a large loan in New York, and for supplying the treasury with ample funds from other sources. At that time the war fever was at its height in the State, and Indiana at once stepped into the foremost ranks of the loyal States in furnishing men and supplies.

It was not until the meeting of the General Assembly in 1863 that serious trouble began, and the administration of Governor Morton met its first decided opposition. Dur-

ing the years 1861 and 1862 the course of the war had not been very favorable to the Union cause, while the burdens on the people kept getting heavier and heavier. In Indiana, as well as in nearly all the other loyal States, there had grown up a great dissatisfaction with the war. Much of this opposition in Indiana arose from the fact that a large number of its citizens were of Southern birth or descent, and they naturally sympathized with that section, especially on the question of slavery. This feeling made itself felt during the political campaign of 1862, and when the election was held, it resulted in a victory for the Democratic party, which secured the State officers and a majority in both branches of the Legislature. In the Legislature were quite a number of men who were very hostile to the further continuance of the war, and, unfortunately, every question which came up was given a party bias, consequently some who were in favor of a vigorous prosecution of the war found themselves compelled to cast votes in opposition, or break away from party lines. The trouble came at the very opening of the session. The custom had always been for the two Houses to meet in joint convention at 2 o'clock on the second day of the session to receive the message of the Governor. The two Houses promptly organized on the first day of the session, electing their officers, and appointing a committee to wait upon the Governor and inform him of their organization, and ask him if he had any communication to make, and what time would be convenient to him. He replied that he would be prepared to deliver his message on the next day, at any hour the General Assembly might fix. The hour of 2 o'clock was designated.

At that hour the Governor was ready to meet the Legislature and deliver his message, but the House informed him that a quorum of the Senate was not present, and that consequently no joint convention could be held, further stating that the House did not know when the General Assembly could receive the message. On receipt of this information the Governor sent, by his private Secretary, printed copies of the message to the two Houses, separately. Both Houses were apparently in session, the presiding officers being in their seats, and business being transacted. The House refused to receive the message, returning it to

the Governor, on the next day, accompanied by the following resolution:

“Resolved, As there was no Senate in session, and no General Assembly to receive such address as contemplated by the constitution, that this House refuse to receive the message of His Excellency the Governor, communicated to it yesterday, and that the same be respectfully returned to him, to await the further action of this General Assembly.”

There was neither a constitutional provision nor law directing in what manner the Governor should deliver his communications to the Legislature, but it had been the custom, from the organization of the State Government, for him to deliver his biennial message in person to the two Houses met in joint session. At all other times his messages were delivered by his private secretary, and it frequently happened that such messages were delivered to one House at a time when the other House was not in session. Under the constitution the Governor can choose his own time and method of delivering his communications. Nor was it necessary for a quorum of each House to be present to receive his message in joint session, so the action on the second day of the session was not only a breach of courtesy on the part of the House, but the excuse given for it was trivial. On the 15th of January the House passed a resolution asking the Governor to re-submit his message. To this the Governor replied, that having delivered his message, in a proper and respectful, as well as legal manner, and it having been returned to him, he had no further communication to make at that time. The whole course of the Legislature in this matter was perfectly indefensible, and demonstrates to what extremes men will go when inflamed by partisanship.

Little real legislation was perfected, the time of the Legislature being mostly taken up in party wrangles. Scenes of turbulence and disorder were witnessed every day. Finally the Legislature split to pieces and was left without a quorum in either House. The cause of this was the introduction and attempted passage of a bill to take the command of the militia out of the hands of the Governor. The constitution makes him commander-in-chief of the militia of the State, but the bill proposed in the Legis-

lature took all authority over the militia out of his hands, and placed it in the hands of a Board of State Officers, the said officers being Democratic. The Republicans in the Legislature resisted this bill with great vehemence, and urged that the necessary appropriation bills be passed. The friends of the new measure declared that they would consider no appropriation bills until the militia bill was passed. On this the Republican members of the Legislature retired in a body, and went to Madison, where they remained until the expiration of the session. The constitution requires that two-thirds of all the members elected be present in either House to constitute a quorum for the transaction of business. The Democrats did not have this number, and all legislative business was at a standstill.

This adjournment, without passing the appropriation bills, left Governor Morton in the same condition in which Governor Willard was left in 1857. No money had been appropriated to carry on the ordinary affairs of the Government, maintain the benevolent institutions, or pay the interest on the public debt. There was this difference, however: In the days of Governor Willard the State treasury did not have the money to pay the interest, while in 1863 the treasury was full. Governor Willard held that it did not require an appropriation to pay the interest, and in that decision he was sustained by the State officers, but he technically violated the law when he borrowed the money for that purpose, without the authority of the Legislature. In 1859, the Legislature, to provide for just such a contingency, should it ever arise again, enacted a law making it the duty of the State Treasurer to remit to New York, from time to time, the money necessary to meet the interest charges. Governor Morton submitted the question to the Attorney General, holding that it was the duty of the Treasurer to pay the interest without further legislation. The Attorney General took a different view of the matter from that taken by his predecessor in 1857, and held that the Treasurer had no such authority. Governor Morton, in presenting the question, used the following language: "The State makes her written promise to pay at particular times and delivers it to her creditor, which upon presentation to

the proper officer is a direct authority for payment. If it is not, then the promise of the State carries with it no obligation, and the authority to pay must be derived solely from subsequent legislation." No one has ever seriously questioned the correctness of the conclusions of Governors Willard and Morton.

Governor Morton promptly and energetically set about the work of securing the money with which to pay the interest, and to defray the expenses of the State government. From various counties, and from bankers in Indiana, he secured loans with which to conduct the government; from a banking firm in New York, the money with which to meet the interest on the public debt, and from the Secretary of War funds for military use. These loans were all promptly repaid by the Legislature of 1865, but it cost the State many thousands of dollars in the way of interest on the money thus borrowed.

By the time the Legislature met in January, 1865, the fact that the end of the war was very near was patent to all, and Governor Morton, in his message, turned his attention to the internal affairs of the State. In 1862 Congress had given to the various loyal States a large amount of public lands for the endowment of agricultural colleges. The Indiana Legislature of 1863 failed to signify the acceptance by the State of the grant made to it, but this was promptly done by the Legislature of 1865, and steps were taken to utilize it. After the overthrow of the school law by the courts in 1858, little or no legislation in behalf of the common schools had been enacted. Soon after the adjournment of the regular session of the General Assembly in 1865, Governor Morton was stricken with paralysis, and after treatment in this country for a while, he determined to go to Europe. He called the Legislature together in special session in November of that year, and turned the administration of affairs over to Lieutenant Governor Conrad Baker. At that session the Legislature actively took hold of educational work, enacted a new and comprehensive school law, established a State Normal School at Terre Haute, and materially increased the tax levy for school purposes.

Immediately upon the assembling of the Legislature in

1867, that body elected Governor Morton United States Senator, and Lieutenant Governor Baker acted as Governor for the remainder of the term, and was then elected to that office in 1868. Governor Baker had rather a stormy administration, arising from many causes. It was during the era of reconstruction, and as the question was one which divided political parties and engendered political strife, it was a notable period in the history of the nation and of some of the States, and was especially so in Indiana, where parties were so nearly equally divided. The amendment to the federal constitution abolishing slavery had been ratified by the General Assembly, February 13, 1865, without much opposition, but when the fourteenth amendment, giving to the colored people the rights of citizenship, came before the Legislature, it aroused considerable opposition. The resolution ratifying this amendment was introduced early in the session of 1867, and was promptly referred to a committee. Two reports were made by the committee, one in favor of ratification and the other against. When the reports reached a vote, that for ratification was adopted, but not without a struggle.

A number of very important acts were passed by the Legislature of 1867. One made an appropriation for the building of the Normal School at Terre Haute; another for the erection of a Soldiers' Home; another for the establishment of a House of Refuge for juvenile offenders. Among the most important acts of this session was one to reform the election laws. It required a registration of voters prior to each election, but was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court, and although the constitution was afterwards amended so as to require a registration, no law for that purpose has since been enacted. The session of 1867 was one of the best the State has had, nearly all the laws enacted by it being in the line of reform. During this part of Governor Baker's administration the attempted impeachment of President Johnson, by Congress, took place. The struggle between the President and Congress over the reconstruction methods had caused a recasting of party lines to some extent. Many of the Democrats who had acted with the Republicans during the war went back to their old party when Congress adopted its reconstruction policy. Quite a number of original Republicans left their party on

the same issue and co-operated with the Democrats. During the struggle President Johnson, accompanied by some members of his cabinet, and by General Grant and Admiral Farragut, made a tour through some of the States. He visited Indianapolis September 10, 1866. He attempted to speak and a riot was precipitated in which several persons were wounded by pistol shots. It was some time before the rioting ceased, and so great was the alarm for the President's safety that his room was guarded during the night by a file of soldiers from the arsenal. The outrage upon the President aroused great indignation throughout the State and the country. It was condemned by all law-abiding citizens of every party. It added to the bitterness already dividing political parties, and its influence was felt at the election which took place a month later.

The political contest of 1868 was characterized by more than the usual party bitterness. The Democrats nominated as their candidate for Governor Thomas A. Hendricks, who was then serving a term as United States Senator, and the Republicans nominated acting Governor Baker. Four years before Governor Morton had been elected by a majority of more than 20,000, but Governor Baker had less than one thousand over Mr. Hendricks. The year 1868 was also made memorable by an outbreak of lynch law. The close of the war had been followed by a decided increase in lawlessness in different parts of the State. A series of daring robberies occurred in several southern counties, and although suspected persons were arrested convictions did not follow. On the 22d of May, 1868, a train was robbed near Seymour, the express car being broken open and the contents of the safe taken. It caused great excitement, this being the first robbery of a railroad train in the United States. It was a new thing in crime, and for a while it filled the public mind. It was not long before the robbers were arrested. They were kept in custody at Cincinnati for several weeks, as threats of lynching had been freely indulged in. On July 20, they were started for Brownstown, the county seat of Jackson County, to be placed on trial. At Seymour an armed body of men boarded the train, took the prisoners and hanged them. The following notice was then posted and circulated throughout the County:

"ATTENTION, THIEVES!

"The attention of all thieves, robbers, assassins and vagrants, together with their aiders, abettors, and sympathizers, is called to the doings of the Seymour Vigilance Committee last night. We are determined to follow this up until all of the classes above named, whether imported or to the 'manor born,' are driven forever from our midst. Threats have been made of retaliation in case we should resort to capital punishment. In answer we say, should one of our committee be harmed, or a dollar's worth of any honest man's property destroyed by persons unknown, we will swing by the neck, until they are dead, every thieving character we can lay our hands on, without inquiry whether we have the persons who committed that particular crime or not. This applies not only to Seymour, but along the line of the two roads, and wherever our organization exists. Law and order must prevail.

"BY ORDER OF THE COMMITTEE.

"Seymour, Ind., July 21, 1868."

Four more of the participators in the railroad robbery were afterwards lynched. These men had escaped when their associates were arrested, but they were subsequently captured in Canada. They were taken to New Albany for safe keeping, and on the night of the 12th of December, the Vigilance Committee of Seymour visited New Albany, took the prisoners from their cells and hanged them in the corridor of the jail.

The session of the Legislature of 1869 was a very turbulent one. The Republicans had a majority in each House, but not enough to make a quorum in either. Even the Republicans were not harmonious, and split into factions over the election of a United States Senator to succeed Mr. Hendricks. The details of this rupture are given in another chapter. Congress had passed the fifteenth amendment to the constitution, giving the right of suffrage to the negroes. It came up for ratification early in the session of the Legislature, and was bitterly opposed by the Democratic minority. They threatened to resign in a body should the attempt to ratify the amendment be urged. The Republicans determined to force the issue, and on the 4th of March the Democrats carried out their threats, seventeen Senators

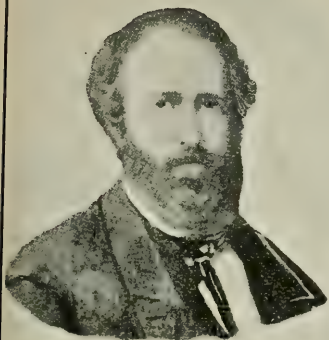
and thirty-six Representatives resigning. This left the General Assembly without a quorum. No appropriation bills had been passed, and Governor Baker at once issued writs for special elections to fill the vacancies caused by the resignations, and called a special session of the Legislature to meet on April 8. It met and the same scenes were re-enacted. Before the new members would take the oath of office, they forced the Republicans to agree that the necessary appropriation bills should be passed before any attempt should be made to ratify the amendment. The bills were passed, together with much other important legislation. Among the bills passed was one to establish a female prison and reformatory, and another fixing the site of the Agricultural College at Lafayette. When these measures were out of the way the Republicans again brought forward the ratification resolution. In anticipation of this the Democratic members had filed their resignations with the Governor, but he had not reported them to the two Houses.

Senator Morton had come on from Washington, and had taken the direction of affairs. The Democrats handed their resignations to the Governor on the night of the 18th of May. The next morning the Senators who had resigned were in their seats in the chamber, preparing to leave, when the Republicans suddenly sprang the resolution, the doors of the Senate chamber having been locked. In vain the Democratic Senators contended that they had resigned; the presiding officer declared he had not been notified of that fact, and as the Senators had been found in their seats, it was to be supposed they were legally present. The Democrats refused to vote, but they were counted as being present and the President of the Senate, Isaac P. Gray, declared the resolution adopted. In the meantime the alarm had spread to the House, and the members who had resigned hastily vacated the hall. There no quorum was present when the vote was taken, but the Speaker ruled that a quorum of the de facto members was present, and that was sufficient. Indiana was put down as one of the States ratifying the amendment. The Republicans were not through with the troublesome matter, however, for two years later the Democrats, having a majority in the Legislature, undertook to rescind the purported ratification. The Democrats caught the Republicans in the Senate, and

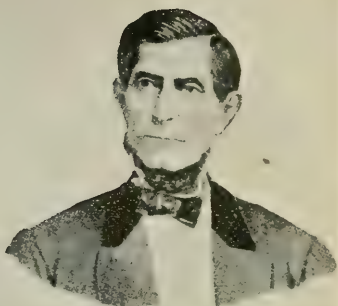
passed the rescinding resolution by a vote of twenty-six to twenty, but before it could be taken up in the House, thirty-four Republican members of that body resigned, leaving the House without a quorum.

There was not much important legislation transacted by the session of 1871. The most important was the adoption of an amendment to the State constitution forbidding the Legislature at any time assuming any part of the debt settled by the compromise which followed the breaking down of the internal improvement system. The divorce laws of the State, which had long been a reproach, were materially changed. In 1872 Thomas A. Hendricks was nominated for the third time for Governor, by the Democrats, and was elected, defeating Gen. Thomas M. Browne. With the exception of Superintendent of Public Instruction, the election otherwise resulted in favor of the Republicans, their candidates on the State ticket being elected, together with a majority of the members of the Legislature. Governor Baker called a special session to meet November 14. In his message he called special attention to the meagerness of the salary allowed the Governor, it being only \$3000. The constitution provides that the salary of the Governor cannot be increased or diminished during his term of office. Some years before, the Legislature, realizing that the salary was insufficient, had sought to increase it by indirect means, by allowing \$5000 a year for house rent. Governor Baker held that he could only take of this fund the actual amount paid for house rent, and he urged the Legislature to determine the Governor's salary, before his successor should come into office, that he might get the benefit of it. A bill fixing the salary at \$8000 was promptly introduced and passed. It was afterward reduced to \$6000, and then again to \$5000, at which figure it now stands, with an allowance of \$1800 for house rent.

Notwithstanding the great financial panic which swept over the country from 1873 to 1878, the administration of Governor Hendricks was a very successful one, and one of moderate prosperity to the State. Labor troubles several times came near causing serious outbreaks, but the firm and yet conciliatory attitude of Governor Hendricks prevented any great damage to property in the State. The first trouble came in January, 1874. On the first day of that



CONRAD BAKER.



JAMES D. WILLIAMS.



ALBERT G. PORTER.



ISAAC P. GRAY.

year the engineers and firemen on the Pennsylvania system of railroads throughout the country went on strike. At first the strikers were quiet and peaceable, but soon mobs gathered in several of the cities, and violent demonstrations were made. The greatest violence occurred at Logansport, in Cass County, and to that place the Governor promptly ordered a body of militia. Rioting lasted for several days, but no property was destroyed, nor was any blood shed. The strike of the railroad men was followed, in March of the same year, by one among the miners in Clay County. The militia were again sent to the scene of disturbance, and quiet was speedily restored.

For some years the temperance excitement had been increasing in the State. Since the failure of the prohibitory law of 1855 little had been done in restraint of the traffic. A general law on the subject had been enacted, requiring retail liquor dealers to procure a license, and forbidding the sale of intoxicants on certain days. In some Counties the law had been fairly enforced, while in others but little attention was paid to it, either as to the taking out of a license, or refraining from selling on the forbidden days. The temperance advocates had for some time been agitating the matter, and when the General Assembly met in 1873, a majority of the members were in favor of a stringent law restraining the traffic. A bill, afterward known as the "Baxter Law," was introduced. In both House and Senate it received almost the unanimous support of the Republicans, and quite a number of Democrats voted for it. It was promptly approved by Governor Hendricks, he holding that it was not hasty legislation in any sense, but had been carefully considered and was the deliberate judgment of the Legislature, and as it was clearly constitutional, he felt called upon to approve it. It proved to be the leading issue in the next political campaign. In fact it was about the only question in which the people appeared to be interested, and the Democrats elected a majority of the Representatives, while the Independents, or Grangers, held the balance of power in the Senate.

The law was repealed, but nothing was put in its place. The regular session of the Legislature in 1875 was a failure, so far as any practical good to the State was concerned. The session was frittered away and ended, passing

but few of the important bills before it. Governor Hendricks promptly called a special session, and in his message read the members a lecture that created a good deal of excitement. Among other things he told them they had failed in discharging their sworn duty, and that as he had called them together before they had left the capital, they were not entitled to receive any mileage, and that he had given instructions to the Auditor of State not to pay any. Resolutions of censure were introduced into both Houses, but never reached a vote. Smarting under the message the General Assembly promptly passed the appropriation, tax and temperance bills and adjourned within five days. It was under the administration of Governor Hendricks that the first definite steps toward erecting a new State House were taken.

The political campaign of 1876 was one of great excitement. Governor Hendricks was the Democratic candidate for Vice President, which added much to the interest in this State. The opposing candidates for Governor were James D. Williams, Democrat, and Godlove S. Orth, Republican. Mr. Orth had served several terms in Congress, and at the time of his nomination was United States Minister at Vienna. Mr. Williams was a farmer, who for more than a quarter of a century had served in one branch or the other of the General Assembly, and in 1874 had been elected to Congress. During the campaign some charges were made against Mr. Orth, in connection with certain Venezuela claims against the United States. A subsequent Congressional investigation exonerated him from any improper connection with the claims, but the charges were of such a character as to induce his withdrawal from the ticket, and a few weeks before the election General Benjamin Harrison was placed at the head of the Republican ticket. Mr. Williams was a farmer, and usually wore a suit of blue jeans, and his political opponents gave him the name of "Blue Jeans," which was quickly adopted by his friends. The election in the State resulted in favor of the Democrats, who elected their full State ticket and a majority in the Senate, the Republicans securing the House.

The regular session of the General Assembly, in 1877, was a turbulent one, and did little worthy of comment. The most important act passed was one to erect a new

State House. As had grown to be the custom, the Legislature failed to pass the appropriation bills, and a special session had to be called.

In July, 1877, another great strike of railroad employes took place, the strike extending from the Missouri River to the Atlantic seaboard. Scenes of turbulence and violence occurred in almost every section of the country. In Indiana, Indianapolis was the center of the turbulence. For several days great disorder prevailed. Governor Williams was asked to order out the militia but declined to do so. The citizens of Indianapolis organized several companies to protect property, under the direction of a committee of the citizens. For a time the running of trains was stopped in almost every section of the State, but order was restored without violence or bloodshed.

At the session of the General Assembly in 1877 several amendments to the constitution were proposed. The amendments were as follows:

First—Requiring every voter to be registered, and to have resided in the State six months, in the County sixty days, and in the precinct thirty days preceding an election to entitle him to a vote.

Second—Striking from Section 5, Article II., the words, "No negro or mulatto shall have the right of suffrage."

Third—Providing that all general elections shall be held on the first Tuesday after the first Monday, in November, township elections to be held at such times as may be provided by law, and authorizing the General Assembly to provide for the election of Judges of courts having general or appellate jurisdiction at a time when no other office shall be voted for.

Fourth—Striking out the word "white" from the constitution.

Fifth—Authorizing the regulation of fees and salaries of County officers on the basis of population.

Sixth—Substitution of the words, "such other courts," for the words, "such inferior courts," in the seventh Article.

Seventh—Limiting the power of incurring debt by municipal corporations.

These amendments were again adopted by the General

Assembly of 1879, and ordered to be submitted to the people for ratification at an election to be held on the first Monday of April, 1880. They were so submitted and voted upon, and received a majority of the votes cast for or against them, but a case being made before the Supreme Court, that body held that they had not received a majority of all the voters in the State, and therefore, had not been legally adopted. They were again submitted to the people in March, 1881, and finally adopted.

On the first of November, 1877, Senator Oliver P. Morton died at his home in Indianapolis. For twenty years he had been prominent in the political history of the State. He had been the Governor of Indiana during the war and had earned the title of the "Great War Governor." At the time of his death he was serving his second term in the Senate, where he had been conspicuous as a leader, wielding, perhaps, more influence in that body than any other member. His death had not been unexpected, but it cast a gloom over the whole State, for all parties recognized his great abilities. Four days after his death his funeral occurred, and was the most imposing event of the kind that had ever occurred in the State. It was attended by members of the President's cabinet, Senators, Members of Congress, distinguished military and naval officers, and a vast concourse of people. Just one year before his death he had been a candidate for the nomination by his party for President, and but for the feeble state of his physical health might have been nominated.

Governor Williams died at Indianapolis, November 20, 1880, the unexpired portion of his term being filled by Lieutenant Governor Isaac P. Gray. The State election of 1880 was the last which took place in October, and resulted in favor of the Republicans, Albert G. Porter being elected Governor. The Republicans had a majority on joint ballot in the General Assembly, and elected General Benjamin Harrison to the United States Senate to succeed Joseph E. McDonald. It was during Governor Porter's term the struggle began between the Legislature and the Chief Executive over appointments to office. At that time the Legislature had reserved to itself the election of the members of the prison boards, and of the State Librarian. When the office of State Geologist was created the Gov-

ernor had been given the power to appoint, and had exercised that power without question. In 1881 a new office was created. A bureau of statistics was established, and the Governor was authorized to appoint its chief. In 1883 the Legislature was Democratic in both branches, and legislated the Governor's appointees out of office and replaced them by men of its own choice. Thus commenced a struggle for office that proved to be a scandal before it ended. If the Governor and the Legislature happened to be of the same political party he would be permitted to fill certain offices, but if they were of a different political faith, all appointments would be taken out of his hands, and either assumed by the Legislature itself, or delegated elsewhere. This constant legislating out one set of appointees, and legislating in another, brought the name of the State into dispute everywhere.

The General Assembly at its session of 1881 adopted a joint resolution proposing an amendment to the constitution giving the Legislature the power to prohibit the manufacture and sale of ardent spirits. In 1855 such a law had been enacted, but had been declared unconstitutional. In 1873 the Baxter bill had been passed, but had been promptly repealed by the next Legislature. This had occasioned a revival of the temperance feeling in the State and resulted in what became known as the crusade. This was followed by the "Blue Ribbon" movement. By 1880 the advocates of temperance were well organized and began circulating petitions asking for a constitutional amendment permitting the prohibition of the traffic. The petitions signed, it was said, by more than 200,000 citizens, were presented to the Legislature at its session in 1881. The proper steps were taken for the amendment, but it failed in the session of 1883. In 1881 the Legislature established the State Board of Health, and in 1883 ordered the building of three new hospitals for the insane. They were located at Richmond, Logansport and Evansville. The session of 1883 also introduced the system of Metropolitan Police Boards for the larger cities of the State. From time to time this system has been extended until it now applies to all cities having a population of 10,000 or more. The law first applied to Indianapolis alone, and the appointing power was given to a Board of State officers. It was after-

ward lodged in the Governor, then taken from him and given again to a Board of State officers, but the new charter of Indianapolis lodged it exclusively in the hands of the Mayor. After being tossed back and forth by succeeding Legislatures the appointing power was once more given to the Governor for all cities in the State, with the exception of Indianapolis. It now remains with him.

In February, 1883, occurred the great floods in the Ohio and Wabash Rivers. This flood was the most destructive of property ever known in the history of Indiana. All the streams of the State overflowed their banks, sweeping away houses, fences and other property. The Legislature was in session and promptly appropriated \$100,000 for the relief of the sufferers. Large contributions from the citizens were also made. The Ohio and Wabash Rivers were miles wide in places, whole farms being submerged. Lawrenceburg, Madison, and other towns on the Ohio were inundated, and hundreds of families were rendered homeless.

The administration of Isaac P. Gray, who followed Governor Porter, was an exciting one. The first session of the General Assembly, under his administration, which met in January, 1885, passed a new law dividing the State into districts for the election of members of the General Assembly, which gave great offense to the opposing party. It was the parent of a prolific brood of such laws, all of which the Supreme Court finally overturned. The most exciting session, however, was that of 1887. The vacation of his office by Lieutenant Governor Manson brought before the people an entirely new question—that of how a vacancy in the office of Lieutenant Governor should be filled. In accordance with a ruling of the Attorney General of the State, the Governor, by proclamation, called upon the people to elect such officer at the general election in 1886. All parties nominated candidates, and the election resulted in favor of the nominee of the Republicans, Colonel Robert S. Robertson. The Democrats had a majority in the Senate and they refused to recognize Colonel Robertson, or permit him to take his seat. The result was a series of tumultuous scenes in and around the State House. The House, being Republican, finally passed a resolution refusing to recognize the Senate, and legisla-

tion was brought to a standstill. But few laws were enacted. Among the laws, however, was one appropriating \$200,000 for the erection of a monument at Indianapolis to the soldiers and sailors of the State. A school for the feeble-minded children was located at Fort Wayne and a liberal appropriation was given, and provision was made for rebuilding the Soldiers' Orphans' Home at Knightstown, which had been destroyed by fire. After a prolonged contest David Turpie was elected to the United States Senate to succeed General Harrison.

Several contested election cases were up for action, two at least being worthy of mention because of their value as precedents. One was a case from Vigo County. The certificate had been given to the Democratic candidate, he having received a majority of the votes cast. It appeared that at a preceding election he had been elected a Justice of the Peace but had never qualified. The constitution provides that any person elected to a judicial office shall not be eligible for any but a judicial office during the time for which he had been elected. The Democrats claimed that the contestee, never having taken the oath of office as Justice of the Peace, was not barred by the constitutional clause. The Republicans planted themselves on the broad reading of the constitution, and claimed that it did not matter whether he accepted the office or not, his election rendered him ineligible to a seat in the House. Having a majority they unseated him and gave the seat to his opponent. The other case was in the Senate. To that body a Republican Senator had been returned by a very large plurality from the district composed of Lawrence and Jackson Counties. His seat was contested on the ground that he had bribed, or attempted to bribe, a voter. Some testimony had been taken, when one day the majority of the committee reported in favor of unseating him and giving his seat to his Democratic opponent. Debate was cut off, and within a few minutes the Republican was unseated and a Democrat was occupying his place.

On November 25, 1885, Vice President Hendricks died suddenly at his home in Indianapolis. For thirty years he had been a commanding figure in Indiana history. He had served the State with honor and fidelity in many high positions, and for twenty-five years had been the one great

leader of his party in Indiana. His personality made him popular even with his political enemies, while by those of his own political faith he was loved as well as admired. His sudden death was a shock to the Nation as well as to the State, and all parties united in paying him honor. His funeral brought many prominent men to Indianapolis from every part of the country. He was buried at Crown Hill, not far from his great political rival—Oliver P. Morton.

During the administration of Governor Gray, General Benjamin Harrison was nominated by the Republicans for President. Governor Gray had himself been prominently spoken of as a candidate for Vice President on the Democratic ticket, and in the convention of his party received a large number of votes. The candidacy of General Harrison added greatly to the political excitement of the campaign. It resulted in favor of the Republicans, General Alvin P. Hovey being elected Governor. The Democrats, however, had a majority in both branches of the General Assembly.

During the administration of Governor Hovey the struggle between the Legislature and the Executive over the appointments to office culminated. The Legislature passed a bill taking all the appointments out of the hands of the Governor. The Governor vetoed the bill, but it was passed over his veto. He then appealed to the courts, and much litigation ensued. The Supreme Court finally decided that the two offices of State Geologist and Chief of the Bureau of Statistics were of such a nature that they had to be filled by an election by the people. Since then the Legislature has gradually grown more liberal in its dealings with the Executive, although at its session of 1895 it placed the selection of the two prison boards in the hands of the State officers. The State Librarian is now selected by the State Board of Education, and all the other appointments are made by the Governor. This partisan struggle over the offices kept the State in a political turmoil for several years, and measurably retarded the institution of many needed reforms. The question is not finally settled, however, for the Legislature can, at its pleasure, resume the power now delegated to the Governor.

The Legislature of 1889 was a memorable body and en-

acted some very important laws. Among these was one changing the entire system of holding elections. The Legislature adopted what is known as the "Australian System." Indiana was the second State in the Union to adopt this system. The law has since been amended in some important particulars, but the main features of the system are still retained. The ballots are supplied by the State and by the various Counties, and none other can be used. The voter receives his ballots from the polling clerks, and retires to a private booth, in the polling room, and there, by certain marks, designates the candidates for whom he desires to vote.

Another important act of this Legislature was one changing the method of selecting and supplying text books for the schools of the State. By that law the State Board of Education is made a Board of Commissioners to select and determine what text books shall be used in the schools, and to receive bids for the same. The prices at which the books are to be furnished are also fixed by the statute. Under the law no text books are to be used other than those selected by the Board of Education, and supplied by the parties to whom the contract may be awarded. Governor Hovey strongly urged that all text books be furnished at the expense of the State.

Under the then existing tax law the Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Auditor and Secretary of State were a State Board of Equalization, with powers to equalize the assessments of property by the various Counties, and to determine the taxable value of the railroads in the State. This system had not worked well, and the Legislature of 1891 established a State Board of Tax Commissioners, to consist of the Governor, Auditor and Secretary of State, and two commissioners appointed by the Governor. This new board soon added millions of dollars to the assessed valuation of property throughout the State. It was one of the most important changes in the system of taxing property that had taken place in the life of the State.

A change was also made in regard to administering the death penalty for crime. Prior to that time all hangings took place in the enclosure around the jail of the County where the sentence of death had been pronounced. Under the new law criminals condemned to death are taken to

the penitentiary, and the sentence is executed by the prison officers.

During the administration of Governor Hovey a memorable event took place. On August 22, 1889, the corner stone of the great Soldiers' Monument was laid at Indianapolis with impressive ceremonies. Benjamin Harrison, President of the United States, was one of the distinguished persons present and taking part. It was made a great occasion by the members of the Grand Army of the Republic, and thousands of veterans were present. The Governor, surrounded by a numerous staff, and many military companies and civic societies took part in the grand parade. President Harrison made a brief address. The orator of the occasion was General John Coburn, who as Colonel of the 33d Indiana regiment, and as commander of a brigade in the Army of the Cumberland, had won distinguished honors during the war.

Governor Hovey died November 23, 1891, and Lieutenant Governor Ira J. Chase became acting Governor, and served as such until January 9, 1893.

In 1892 Claude Matthews was elected Governor. The State during the administrations of Governors Gray and Hovey had had a wonderful growth in material wealth. The discovery of natural gas had given an impetus that soon added thousands to the population, and millions of wealth to the State. Even the great financial distress which followed the panic of 1893 did not destroy this prosperity. It retarded it somewhat, but Indiana suffered less, in comparison, than any other of the States. The most important events which occurred during the administration of Governor Matthews were the great strike among the railroad men and the grand encampment of the G. A. R. at Indianapolis.

In 1882 the Grand Army of the Republic held its National Encampment at Indianapolis, but the great Encampment took place in September, 1893. The city appropriated \$75,000 and the citizens gave an additional \$50,000 to entertain the old soldiers. Most of the distinguished Generals still living were present, and marched in the great parade on September 4. The veterans were welcomed by the Governor of the State and the Mayor of the city. The shaft of the great monument had just been com-

pleted and the Encampment was a sort of dedication of this work.

In June, 1894, a strike occurred at Pullman, Illinois, by the employes of the Pullman Palace Car Company. It soon involved the employes of all the railroads centering in Chicago, and for many days rioting was frequent at many places along the lines of the various roads. At Hammond, Indiana, several hundred strikers and their sympathizers took possession of the railroad tracks and stopped the running of all trains. Governor Matthews acted promptly and energetically, sending to Hammond several companies of the State militia. By this energetic course he prevented the destruction of property, and soon restored order.

During his term of office Governor Matthews displayed a firm intent to enforce the laws in other respects than in regard to strikes. Some parties of Chicago had purchased ground near Roby, in Lake County, for the purpose of establishing horse racing, prize fighting and other kindred amusements. Governor Matthews at once announced that no prize fighting should take place in Indiana while he was Governor, and threatened, if necessary, to stop all such exhibitions by the military arm of the State. He took a stand against "winter racing" and through the courts finally stopped it.

His administration was notable from one other cause. In 1893 the Legislature re-districted the State for Legislative purposes. The law created great political excitement, and the Republicans at once brought an action in court to test its constitutionality. It was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court. In 1895 the Republicans had a majority in both Houses of the General Assembly, and enacted a law of a similar character. This was at once attacked by the Democrats in the courts, and in turn was pronounced void. The Governor refused to call an extra session of the General Assembly, holding that the law of 1885 was in force. The Republicans combatted this proposition, and for the purpose of forcing the Governor to re-assemble the Legislature attacked the law of 1885 in the courts. It looked for a while as if the State would be thrown into a condition of civil anarchy, but the court prevented this by holding the law good.

Governor Matthews was succeeded by James A. Mount. The administration of Governor Mount was made memorable by the war with Spain. With characteristic energy the Governor devoted himself to raising and equipping the troops called for by the General Government, and in caring for them on their return home after their brief war experience. At the outbreak of the war the State had a well organized militia, and it was mainly from its ranks the Governor filled the State's quota. It is to the credit of Indiana that its quota was the first ready for service.

In September, 1897, occurred one of those scenes which have so often disgraced the Western and Southern States. It was an outbreak of mob violence, in which five prisoners were taken from the jail in Ripley County and hung. There is never any good excuse for such violence, but in this case there was less than usual. The Governor, through the Attorney General, made strenuous efforts to bring the participants to justice, but without results. The Legislature, at its next session, passed some very stringent laws on the subject of lynching, and in 1901 passed one which holds sheriffs to a strict accountability in such cases, vacating the office of any sheriff from whose hands a prisoner is taken and executed.

Among the important laws enacted during the administration of Governor Mount were those establishing a bureau of labor, and providing for the inspection of factories, mines, etc. The laws in regard to the powers and duties of Townships Trustees and County Commissioners, in the expenditure of money, were materially changed.

Winfield T. Durbin became Governor in 1901. His administration has but fairly begun when this work is sent to press.

On March 13, 1901, Ex-President Benjamin Harrison died. His funeral was attended by a large concourse of distinguished citizens, President McKinley being among the number.

CHAPTER XXIV.

NEW HARMONY.

No history of Indiana would be complete, nor ought one be written, without devoting some space to New Harmony. It has been the good fortune of few cities even, to give to a State as many distinguished men in science and literature as the little town of New Harmony has given to Indiana. Its history is an idyl. It is the most historic spot of Indiana. Down in Posey County, near the confluence of the Wabash and Ohio Rivers, in 1815, came a band of pioneers, with strange customs, habits and laws, and there attempted to build a community upon radical principles. As a prelude to the story of New Harmony a short sketch of its original founder is worthy of a place. In 1770, in Wurtemberg, Germany, was born George Rapp, who undertook to build a community and govern it by the New Testament, as he understood and interpreted it. He was a weaver by trade, but became a close student of the Bible, and, impressed with the teachings of the New Testament, conceived that it was possible for men to live such righteous and holy lives as to eventually banish sin from the world, and that when sin was so banished, Christ would come again, and mingle with His own. He collected a little colony around him to whom he taught his doctrine. They were a peaceable, law-abiding, industrious people, but strange to say, the little community met with great opposition from the Government. So strong was this opposition that Rapp finally determined to leave Germany, and try his experiment in the new world. He came to the United States in 1803, and purchased lands in Pennsylvania.

The newcomers were poor when they opened their set-

tlement in Pennsylvania, but they were honest and industrious, and within ten years were rich, owning flocks and herds and factories. From some cause the community was not satisfied in its Pennsylvania home, and in 1815 purchased 30,000 acres of land in Posey County, Indiana, and there established a new home. Thousands of acres of land were cleared and the community engaged extensively in farming, fruit growing and stock raising. Many of the queer houses built by the original settlers still remain. One peculiarity is that none of them have a front door. They face the street, but the only door leading to the outer world is placed so as to open on the interior of the lot. Among the first thing the settlers did was to erect a fort for their protection from the Indians. It was a long, low structure, with narrow portholes cut through the stone. A long, underground passage extended from the interior of the fort to the house of Mr. Rapp, several hundred yards away. In the center of the town is the old Rappite cemetery, surrounded by a brick wall about five feet high. No gravestones, monuments or other distinguishing marks at the graves are seen, the members of the community not believing in such things. In front of a vineyard on a hillside was a series of concentric walks, bordered with shrubs and flowers. These walks led to a beautiful summer house in the center. If exactly the right course was not followed the house could not be reached.

The community believed in the Bible, and all were devout worshippers of Christ. A great church was built in the shape of a Greek cross. It extended one hundred and thirty feet from east to west and one hundred and twenty feet from north to south. The walls and ceilings of one of the wings were magnificently frescoed and painted. The main portion of this church was afterward used for a slaughter house, for the killing and packing of hogs. One wing yet remains and is occupied as a library and art gallery, the library being especially valuable. In 1824 the Rappites sold out their holdings to another dreamer, but one of a different character. In 1771, but a year after the birth of George Rapp, in Germany, Robert Owen was born in Wales. He was poor and unknown, and finally drifted to London, and from London to Manchester, where at the age of twenty he found himself manager of a large cotton fac-

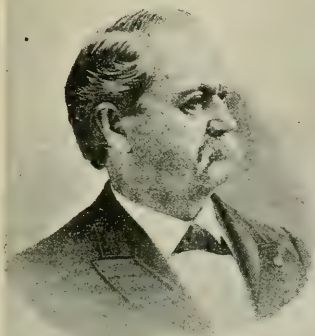
tory. He also dreamed of a Utopia. He believed it was possible for capital and labor to be one in all things, and he eventually established a community at New Lanark, Scotland. It was a model manufacturing town. He built large and beautiful school rooms wherein the children of his workmen were better taught, in many respects, than the children of the nobility at Eton or Harrow. They were also regularly drilled in singing, dancing, military exercises, and polite demeanor. Years afterward he wrote of his experiment, saying: "For twenty-nine years we did without the necessity for magistrates or lawyers; without a single legal punishment; without any known poor rates; without intemperance or religious animosities. We reduced the hours of labor, well educated all the children from infancy, greatly improved the condition of the adults, and cleared upward of three hundred thousand pounds profit."

He spent many years in traveling and teaching that the world would be better off if co-operation should take the place of competition, and if the people lived in communities, owning all things in common. He tried to introduce his theories and practice in America, and bought out the Rappites at New Harmony, in 1824. Owen and Rapp were both dreamers, but there was this marked distinction and difference between them. Rapp was a devout believer in God and in the truths of Christianity, while Owen was a free thinker, rejecting creeds as superstition. Owen had with him in his purchase of New Harmony, William Mac-lure, the father of American geology. It was not long before the knowledge of this modern Utopia spread through Europe, and although the scheme of communistic living and government soon failed, for nearly fifty years New Harmony was a sort of Mecca for men of science and learning, and they gathered there from all parts of the world. A school was established which drew students from all sections of America. Robert Owen soon returned to Scotland, but he left Robert Dale Owen, William Owen, David Dale Owen, and Richard Owen, his four sons, who all became men of mark, in the State and Nation. The eldest, Robert Dale, reflected more honor in his life time on the State than perhaps any other one man.

CHAPTER XXV.

STATESMEN AND POLITICIANS.

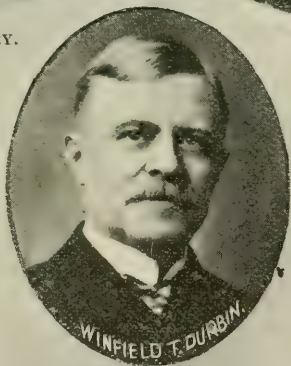
For two decades or more Indiana has been looked upon as the political storm center of the country. It has frequently been said that in Indiana everybody talks politics—that the children prattle about politics at their play; that merchants talk it to their customers, and preachers preach it from their pulpits. It has also been said that every person in Indiana is a born politician. It is true that in this State political battles have been more hotly contested than anywhere else, and the State has furnished to the country some of its greatest political leaders, and also some of its profoundest statesmen. A man may be a great political leader and a great statesman, but the combination is a rare one. Jesse D. Bright, who for seventeen years represented the State in the United States Senate, was one of the greatest party leaders the State has ever known, yet hardly any one would claim that he was a great statesman. He was a shrewd politician and a master of the art of handling a political party. He had numerous able and powerful enemies within his own party, but they could accomplish nothing as against his leadership. Take the two great political rivals—Oliver P. Morton and Thomas A. Hendricks. While they lived it was a “battle of the giants” for political control of the State, yet they were statesmen as well as politicians. It is hard to single out those who should be ranked among the great men of Indiana in a political sense, for it has had many, yet the lives of some of them have had so much to do with shaping the destinies of the State and giving character and tone to its history that this work will not be complete without something more than a mere mention of



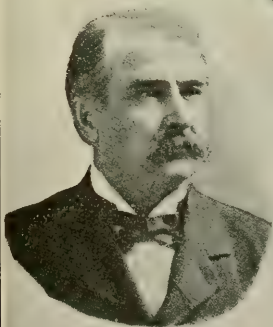
ALVIN P. HOVEY.



IRA J. CHASE.



WINFIELD T. DURBIN.



CLAUDE MATTHEWS.



JAMES A. MOUNT.



them. Among those who laid the foundations of the State, as well as among those of later years, were men entitled to rank as statesmen.

GENERAL WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

Much of Indiana's prestige is due to the men who first controlled its destinies. When Indiana Territory was organized, in 1800, General William Henry Harrison was appointed Governor. He was a Virginian by birth. His father had long been prominent in the affairs of Virginia, and of the United Colonies. He had represented Virginia in the Continental Congress, and had signed the Declaration of Independence. William Henry was born in Berkeley, Charles City County, February 9, 1773. His infancy was spent amid the stirring scenes of the struggle for independence. He was educated at Hampton Sidney College, and studied medicine, but at the age of nineteen decided to enter the army. He received a commission as ensign, and was attached to the army of General St. Clair, then in the Northwest Territory. He served with St. Clair until that General was superseded by Anthony Wayne, and then became one of the latter's aides, and in that capacity was present when Wayne overthrew the Indian power on the Maumee. In 1795 he was appointed a Captain and placed in command of Fort Washington, where Cincinnati now stands. General St. Clair was still Governor of the Northwest Territory, and in 1797 Captain Harrison was made Secretary of the Territory, and resigned from the army. When it came time to elect a delegate to Congress, Captain Harrison and Arthur St. Clair, Jr., a son of the Governor, became candidates. The Congressional delegate was then elected by the Legislative Council. Harrison received eleven votes, and St. Clair ten. He entered at once upon his duties, but in 1800, when the Territory of Indiana was organized, he was appointed Governor.

The seat of government of the new Territory was fixed at Vincennes. The Territory then embraced what is now Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Michigan. In all this vast area there were not more than five thousand civilized people. The Indians laid claim to the whole of it, with the exception of small grants in four or five places. On the 10th of January, 1801, Governor Harrison arrived at Vincennes

and assumed direction of affairs. Under his instructions one of his chief duties was to extinguish, by treaty, as fast as possible, the Indian claims to the country. In what is now Indiana, there were no settlers except at Vincennes, and a few on Clark's Grant, at the Falls of the Ohio. There was a small military post at the head of the Maumee, where Fort Wayne now stands. The Governor administered the affairs of the Territory with remarkable skill, and made numerous treaties with the Indians, securing grants of lands with each of them. General Harrison was Southern born. He had grown up in an atmosphere of slavery, and his feelings were all favorable to that institution. By the Ordinance of 1787 slavery was forbidden in the territory northwest of the Ohio. Nearly all of those who had come into the Territory, after its organization, were from the South, but they were not all friendly to slavery. Some of the immigrants had brought their slaves with them, and for several years determined efforts were made to secure the abrogation of the clause in the Ordinance of 1787 forbidding slavery. The Governor was active in this movement. The opponents of slavery, however, had grown in strength, and all these efforts were defeated. At one time a strong faction attempted to undermine and destroy the popularity of Governor Harrison, but their machinations were disclosed and defeated.

The Indians became troublesome in 1811. They were under the leadership of Tecumseh and his brother, the Prophet. The ostensible cause of the trouble was that Governor Harrison had made a treaty with the Miamis, and secured a cession of land, without the consent of the Shawnees, but Tecumseh had been fired by the traditions of Pontiac half a century before and designed to form a grand confederacy of all the Indian tribes against the whites. He had two or three interviews with Harrison, one of which was especially stormy, and at which Tecumseh had planned to take the life of the Governor, but was thwarted by the promptness of General John Gibson. General Harrison organized a campaign against the hostiles and defeated them at the battle of Tippecanoe.

In 1812, at the outbreak of the war with Great Britain, Governor Harrison was made a Brigadier General in the regular army, and was assigned to the command of the

northwest frontier. He began the work of organizing the frontier for defense, and issued a warning to the various Indian tribes that he would punish any infraction of the treaties existing between them and the Government. The following year he was promoted to the rank of Major General, and was especially assigned to the task of recovering the territory lost by the surrender of Detroit. By this time nearly all the Indian tribes were in alliance with the British. General Harrison was strengthened by the Government, and organized a force of volunteers. With these he pursued the British and Indians into Canada, where he inflicted upon them a disastrous defeat at the battle of the Thames.

Not long after the close of the war, owing to a difficulty with General Armstrong, Secretary of War, General Harrison resigned his commission in the army and retired to private life, settling on his farm at North Bend, near Cincinnati. In 1816 he was elected to Congress from the Cincinnati district, and served three years. On retiring from Congress he was sent to the Ohio State Senate, and in 1824 was elected to a seat in the United States Senate, which he held until 1828, when President John Quincy Adams made him United States Minister to Colombia. This post he held but a short time, for President Jackson, immediately upon his accession to office, removed him. He returned to Cincinnati and was elected Clerk of the Court of Common Pleas. In 1836 he was a candidate for the Presidency, receiving seventy-three electoral votes, those of Indiana being among the number. In December, 1839, at the Whig convention, at Harrisburg, he was made the nominee of that party for the Presidency, over Clay, Webster and Scott. This nomination was followed by the most remarkable political campaign that had ever been witnessed in this country. It was during this campaign that campaign political papers first appeared. The election resulted in favor of the Whigs, General Harrison receiving two hundred and thirty-four electoral votes, to sixty cast for President Van Buren. Again Indiana cast its vote for its first Governor.

General Harrison was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1841, but died just one month later, from disease brought on by the exposures of inauguration day. General Harrison

would hardly be classed as a great man, but he filled every station to which he was called with remarkable fidelity, and to the satisfaction of the people. It was fortunate for Indiana that he failed in his efforts to open the doors of the Territory to slavery, and he lived long enough to acknowledge this, and to rejoice that he did so fail. As a soldier he was uniformly successful. He thoroughly understood the Indian character, and was successful in thwarting the schemes of Tecumseh, and other hostile chieftains. His remains are buried at his farm home at North Bend.

JOHN TIPTON.

John Tipton must always be classed among the great men of Indiana. He was a pioneer, a frontiersman, a soldier of great merit, and a statesman. That is, he was a statesman in knowing what a frontier State needed, and what was best for its people, which, after all, is the truest test of statesmanship. John Tipton was born August 14, 1786, in Sevier County, Tennessee. When John was a little more than five years old his father was killed by the Indians. He became an Indian fighter in early manhood, and one of the best known of that class in Tennessee. He was fearless and tireless in his pursuit of the savages, and won almost as much celebrity as Simon Kenton. In 1807 he came to Indiana, bringing his mother. He made Harrison County his home. It was a period of danger to the settlers. The Indians were still hostile, and the country was infested by lawless bands of horse stealers and robbers. Tipton soon became a leader among the settlers of Harrison County, and was one of the foremost in driving from that County all lawless characters. When the Indians, under the leadership of Tecumseh and his brother, began to grow restless, a military company was organized in Harrison County, under the command of Captain Spier Spencer. Tipton was elected ensign. This company became a part of the force Governor Harrison led to Tippecanoe, and in that battle it suffered greatly. Captain Spencer and both his lieutenants were killed and the command of the company devolved upon Tipton. After the battle Tipton remained in the service of the Territory and finally rose to the rank

of Brigadier General in the militia, and led several expeditions against the marauding Indians, and always with success.

General Tipton had never had any opportunity to secure an education, and at the time of his military service was very illiterate. During the Tippecanoe campaign he kept a journal of the daily events. In this journal he thus describes the battle:

"Thursday the 7 agreeable to their promised. Last night we were answered by the firing of guns and the Shawnees breaking into our tents a blood combat took place at precisely 15 minutes before five in the morning which lasted two hours and 20 minutes of a continual firing while many times mixed among the Indians so that we could not tell the Indians and our men apart. they kept up a firing on three sides of us took our tent from the guard fire. Our men fought brave and by the timely help of Capt. Cook with a company of infantry we made a charge and drove them out of the timber across the prairie. Our loss in killed and wounded was 179 and theirs greater than ours. Among the dead was our Capt. Spier Spencer and first Lieutenant McMahon and Captain Berry that had been attached to our company and 5 more killed dead and 15 wounded. After the Indians gave ground we buried our dead. Among the Kentuckians was killed Mayj Owen and Mayj Davis badly wounded and a number of others in all killed and wounded was 179 but no company suffered like ours. We then held an election for officers. I was elected Capt, Saml. Flanagan first Lieut and Jacob Zenor second Lieut and Philip Bell Ensign. we then built breastworks our men in much confusion, our powder been too small and all our powder lost. Last night only half rations of whisky and no corn for our horses. my horse killed I got McMahans to ride. 37 of them had been killed wounded and lost last night. I had one quart of whisky."

There was not much promise of a future United States Senator in that account of the battle in the night, but its writer became, in after life, not only a member of the Senate, but a very influential one. At the first election under the State constitution, Mr. Tipton was elected Sheriff of Harrison County. In 1819 he was elected to the Legislature, and was one of the Commissioners ap-

pointed to select a site for the new capital of the State. In 1821 he was one of the Commissioners to fix the boundary between Indiana and Illinois, and in 1823 was appointed by President Monroe general agent for the Pottawattamie and Miami Indians, in Northern Indiana. On accepting this office he removed to Fort Wayne, where the agency was located, but a few years later induced the Government to remove the agency to Logansport, a new town in which he had become interested.

In December, 1831, he was elected to fill out the unexpired term of Senator Noble who had died in office. Two years later he was elected for a full term of six years. He was a Democrat, and while in the Senate acted with that party, except on the bank question. He was a warm advocate of the United States Bank. In the Senate he soon wielded a wide influence. He was not an orator, and although he had vastly improved since the days of the Tippecanoe campaign, yet he was far from being an educated man. He had strong common sense; was broad in his views, and on all matters touching the West was thoroughly informed.

General Tipton did much for Fort Wayne, Logansport and Columbus. He gave sixty acres of land, where Columbus now stands, to the County for the use of public buildings, and for a while the town was named "Tiptonia." He presented to the State the ground on which the battle of Tippecanoe was fought. Had General Tipton possessed the advantages of education he would have been one of the foremost men of the nation.

JAMES WHITCOMB.

Near Windsor, Vermont, on the first day of December, 1795, was born James Whitcomb, whose name afterward was so intimately identified with Indiana that it became a part of the history of the State. He was born on a rugged and barren farm, in sight of the Green Mountains. A few years after the birth of James, the elder Whitcomb determined to carve out for himself and family a home in the then far West. He removed to Ohio, and settled near Cincinnati, and began the work of clearing a farm, and in this work the active lad bore his full share. Amid these hard-

ships and with only the encouragement he could get from the kind words of neighbors, the lad toiled and studied, reading with avidity every book he could borrow in the neighborhood, until he had fitted himself for college. He then entered Transylvania College, and by working and teaching during vacations maintained himself until he graduated. He chose the law for his profession, and after leaving college devoted himself diligently to acquiring a knowledge of that science. He was admitted to the bar in Kentucky, and in 1824 came to Indiana and settled at Bloomington. It was not long before he became one of the leading attorneys of that section, and receiving the appointment of Prosecuting Attorney from Governor Ray, acquired an extensive acquaintance.

After serving a term or two in the State Senate, where he added to his fame as a ready and forcible debater, he was, in 1836, appointed, by President Jackson, Commissioner of the General Land Office at Washington. He was reappointed by President Van Buren and served throughout his term. In 1841 he returned to Indiana and took up his residence at Terre Haute. It was at the very height of the business depression following the failure of the attempt on the part of the State to construct a vast system of railroads, canals and turnpikes. Mr. Whitcomb, while a member of the State Senate, had opposed the scheme of internal improvements, and had made several very able speeches on the question. The scheme had been a favorite one with the people, and the Whigs, being its great advocates, had carried the State for several years. The Democrats, in 1843, in looking around for a candidate for Governor, chose Mr. Whitcomb. Three years previously the great champion of their party, Tilghman A. Howard, had been badly beaten on the internal improvement issue. Although the scheme had fallen from its own weight and left the State and the people burdened with debt, it still had friends enough to make an election look very doubtful for one of the opposition, but Mr. Whitcomb was in no way discouraged. His confidence was not misplaced, for he defeated the Whig candidate, Governor Bigger, by a handsome majority.

He entered upon the duties of his office at a very discouraging period. The elaborate internal improvement sys-

tem had broken down, leaving the State overwhelmed with debt. The interest upon the State bonds had not been paid for several years, and the good name of the State was suffering. The great panic of 1837 and the following years had left its mark deep on all Indiana enterprises. The State had no money—could get none. Its creditors were clamorous. For some time it had been using scrip for discharging its indebtedness to the contractors on the great public works, but that scrip had gone down until it practically had no purchasing power, and the State had no money with which to redeem it. There was distress everywhere.

This was the state of affairs when Mr. Whitcomb took the oath of office. He bent his energies to find a way to redeem the credit of the State and once more put it on the path to prosperity. Negotiations were opened with the holders of the State bonds, most of them being in England. Finally a solution was reached. A scheme was devised to retire the old bonds, and issue new ones for a part of the debt, the bondholders taking the unfinished public improvements for the other part. To this settlement of the embarrassed financial affairs of the State Governor Whitcomb gave all the aid in his power. While it might be unjust to others to give him all the credit of the settlement, yet it was effected during his administration, and he was unquestionably the principal factor in bringing it about. For some years before his election the question of doing something for the unfortunate of the State had been agitated. The constitution had imposed the duty of caring for them on the Legislature, but owing to many causes nothing had been done. Governor Whitcomb took hold of this matter in earnest, and largely through his efforts the hospital for the insane and the institutions for the education of the deaf and dumb and the blind were erected.

The Mexican war came and Governor Whitcomb ably supplemented the efforts of the General Government in raising volunteers. It is one of the misfortunes of the State that but little has been placed among the State records of the doings of Indiana troops during that war. The report of the Adjutant General covers only a page or two in the Documentary Journals of the Legislature, and is confined wholly to a statement of the number of regiments furnished. Mr. Whitcomb was re-elected Governor, but before

his term of service was out he was chosen a member of the United States Senate. He was in ill health when he went to Washington, and he died in New York, October 4, 1852. His remains were brought to Indianapolis and buried, and the State erected a monument to his memory.

Governor Whitcomb was a powerful political writer and speaker. He was a good lawyer, but not a great one. He was an able Governor, and did much to make the name of Indiana respected at home and abroad. He possessed few of the arts of a politician, and was chosen to the high places he filled because of his commanding abilities.

JOSEPH A. WRIGHT.

The last Governor under the old constitution, and the first under the new, Joseph A. Wright, was one of the most remarkable men Indiana has produced. He was born April 17, 1810, at Washington, Pennsylvania. While yet a boy he removed with his father to Bloomington, Indiana. The family was very poor. Joseph was ambitious, and determined to secure an education. His parents were unable to help him, but the boy did not need help. He was able to help himself. To pay his way through the State University he acted as janitor, and to buy books earned money by carrying brick and doing odd jobs around the little town. He remained in college two years and then entered upon the study of law. When he was ready for practice he removed to Rockville, Parke County. He at once made himself popular with the people, and before he was twenty years old he was a practicing attorney. At the age of twenty-three he was elected to the State Legislature. After serving a term or two in the Legislature he was, in 1843, elected to Congress. He was a candidate for re-election, but was defeated by a small majority. In 1849 he was nominated by the Democrats for Governor. During his first term the new constitution was proposed and adopted, changing the length of the term of Governor from three to four years, and in 1852 he was elected Governor under the new constitution.

He was bitterly opposed to all banks of issue, and used all his power to prevent the State Bank from getting a new charter. It was through his efforts that the rottenness of

many of the free banks was exposed, and they were driven out of business. Governor Wright and Senator Jesse D. Bright contended long and bitterly for the mastery of their party. The Governor held the people, while the Senator controlled the politicians. Mr. Wright ardently desired to go to the United States Senate, but his ambitions in that direction were always thwarted by Mr. Bright. The mutual hatred of the two men was of the most intense kind, and the English language hardly furnished them words enough to express their opinions of each other.

In 1857, shortly after the expiration of his second term as Governor, Mr. Wright was appointed Minister to Prussia by President Buchanan, and served at that court four years. He was courtly, urbane and dignified, and added much to the reputation of the United States abroad. He was in Europe when the rebellion broke out. He took strong ground in support of the Government, and hastened home to lend the weight of his influence in favor of the Union. His four years' residence abroad had somewhat estranged him from the State, but his popularity with the rank and file of his party was still very great. In 1862, when Jesse D. Bright was expelled from the Senate, Governor Morton appointed Mr. Wright to the vacant place. Thus it was he at last reached the position he had long desired. In the Senate he became one of Mr. Lincoln's staunchest advocates, and he voted steadily with the Republicans on all war measures. He still had a month or two of the term to fill out when the Legislature met in 1863. The Democrats, his former political friends, had a large majority on joint ballot, but his alliance with the Republicans prevented him from receiving their votes for either the short or long term. David Turpie was elected for the short term and Thomas A. Hendricks for the full term.

President Lincoln appointed him a Commissioner to the Hamburg Exposition, in 1863, and President Johnson, two years later, made him Minister to Berlin again. He died at Berlin, March 11, 1867. It is doubtful if Indiana ever held a public man who was as great an adept at canvassing for votes as Mr. Wright. From a poor boy struggling for an education he had climbed the various steps of the ladder until he had twice served the people of the State as their Governor, and twice represented his country at one of the

most important capitals of Europe. In his day he stood closer to the people of the State than any other man.

HENRY S. LANE.

Indiana has had many noted orators—orators who possessed the power to move the multitudes, and arouse them to the highest pitch of enthusiasm. There were Marshall and Dunn, Parker and Willard, Howard and Caleb B. Smith, but none of them equaled Henry S. Lane. He was not a debater. He was not logical, nor analytical, but possessed an eloquence that was peculiarly his own. He was long known as “the silver-tongued orator.” Other men might speak and convince the reason of their hearers, but Henry S. Lane did not convince—he captured and took prisoner, by his imagery, his wonderful talent as a story teller, and when he was through, his hearers were ready to do and dare for him, or for the creed he espoused. He was in at the birth of the Republican party, and his fame as an orator was such at that time as to make him chairman of the convention which nominated Fremont for the Presidency. His speech on taking the gavel was a wonderful burst of eloquence, and aroused such enthusiasm that it was a long time before the convention could settle down to the work before it. It mattered not when or where he was called upon to speak the same matchless eloquence was sure to be heard.

Henry S. Lane was born in Montgomery County, Kentucky, February 11, 1811. When eighteen years of age he began the study of law, and in 1835 came to Indiana, making his home at Crawfordsville. He left Kentucky because he hated slavery. He was not an abolitionist, but did not believe in the institution. In 1840 he was elected to Congress as a Whig, and was re-elected two years afterward by a largely increased majority. In 1844 he threw himself heart and soul into the contest in favor of Henry Clay.

When the war with Mexico came, the Whigs, as a rule, opposed it, but Mr. Lane was one of its most fiery advocates, and assisted in organizing a regiment, of which he was made Major, but afterward was promoted to Lieutenant Colonel. He acted with the Whigs until 1854, when the People's party was organized. The People's Party was made up of many elements, old Whigs, anti-Nebraska Dem-

ocrats, Know Nothings and Prohibitionists. Two years later he was with the Republican party, and was one of its greatest leaders in Indiana. In 1860 he was nominated by the Republicans as their candidate for Governor, his opponent being Thomas A. Hendricks. The two entered upon a joint canvass of the State, and spoke together in a majority of the Counties. As a debater Mr. Lane was not the equal of Mr. Hendricks, but as a stumper far surpassed him. Mr. Lane and Andrew G. Curtin, of Pennsylvania, had more to do with the nomination of Mr. Lincoln for the Presidency than any other two men. Curtin was the candidate for Governor in Pennsylvania, as Lane was in Indiana, and they believed that the nomination of Seward would be fatal to their success, so they united for Lincoln, and as both States voted in October, they convinced the delegates at Chicago that Lincoln was the only man who could possibly carry their States.

The Democratic party in Indiana was divided on candidates for President, but was united upon the State ticket. The contest was one of the most notable the State has ever witnessed, and it resulted in the election of Mr. Lane. In November Indiana cast its vote for Mr. Lincoln. His election was followed by the secession of a number of the Southern States. When the Legislature met, in January, 1861, Mr. Lane took the oath of office as Governor. In his inaugural, speaking of the proposed disruption of the Union, he said:

“The novel, alarming and treasonable assumption that any State in the Union has a right, under the Federal constitution, to secede at pleasure is a doctrine unknown to the constitution, at war with the principles on which our Government was established, and destructive of those high and sacred objects sought to be accomplished by the confederation. The doctrine of secession, peaceable or forcible, now or at any other time, is a dangerous heresy, fraught with all the terrible consequences of civil war and bloodshed, and leading directly to the utter ruin of all our institutions. This heresy has not yet poisoned the public sentiment of Indiana, and may God, in His kind providence, put afar off the evil day which shall witness its prevalence among us. I most sincerely believe, and am proud to declare, that the people of Indiana, of all parties,

are true to the constitution, and loyal to the Union, and that they will always be in the future, as they have shown themselves to have been in the past, willing to yield a ready and cheerful obedience to all the requirements of the constitution of the United States, and to maintain and uphold at all times, and under all circumstances, and at every hazard, the glorious form of free government under which we live."

This was a distinct announcement on the part of Mr. Lane that he and his party, in Indiana, were in favor of coercion, if necessary, to preserve the Union. The term of Graham N. Fitch in the United States Senate was about to expire, and Governor Lane was elected to succeed him. He served as Governor but two days. The war came in April, and at the extraordinary session of Congress, called by President Lincoln, Mr. Lane was active in support of war measures. He served his term of six years and then retired to private life. He died at his home in Crawfordsville, June 19, 1881, after an illness of only an hour or two.

ROBERT DALE OWEN.

Among the statesmen of Indiana Robert Dale Owen is entitled to a high place. He was born in Glasgow, Scotland, November 7, 1801. His father was one of the foremost men of that day in Scotland. He was distinguished as a successful manufacturer, and as a reformer. One of his dreams was to make the world better through co-operation between employer and employed. To establish the practicability of this scheme he had erected a great factory, and conducted it on those principles, in a town he had built up around his factory. Robert Dale was born to wealth. His father was a believer in the value of education, and gave to his son all the advantages possible in that direction. At the age of sixteen he was sent to Switzerland to continue his studies.

Not long after his return to Scotland his father bought out the possessions of the Rappites, at New Harmony, Indiana, with the intent of founding in this country a model town, where the principal creed should be to do good. Robert Dale came with his father to Indiana, and when the father became disgusted at the failure of his experiment, and returned to Scotland, Robert Dale remained. Both the

elder and younger Owen were what may be denominated "free thinkers" in religion. In 1828 Robert Dale went to New York and associated himself with Frances Wright in the publication of a radical journal, devoted to social reforms. While in New York he married and soon after returned to Indiana. He gave himself up to study, and to efforts to bring about reforms. At the town of New Harmony he gathered around him philosophers, men of science and men of letters, from all parts of the world, and there they talked and planned of what the world was to be when their great schemes of reform became generally the order of the day.

His first public office was that of a member of the State Legislature, and there he devoted himself chiefly to the cause of education. It was at the time when the Government was dividing the surplus revenue among the States, and it was mainly through the efforts of Mr. Owen that Indiana set apart two-thirds of the share allotted to it, to become a part of the permanent school fund of the State. He was the first among the public men of Indiana to advocate an enlargement of the rights of married women, especially as to the control and disposition of their own property. His efforts failed at that time, but he did not cease to advocate this measure, by his pen and in public addresses, until he finally scored a triumph. He wielded a great influence in the southwestern part of the State, but met with considerable opposition from the churches on account of his free opinions. This opposition defeated him for Congress, in his first race, but he was afterward elected on the Democratic ticket and served two terms. While in Congress he introduced the bill creating the Smithsonian Institute and for many years was one of its regents.

He was a member of the constitutional convention of 1850, and one of its marked leaders. He was the author of that clause of the constitution which forbade negroes or mulattoes coming to the State. He lived to be one of the staunchest advocates of emancipation. Early in the war he wrote a letter to President Lincoln urging that measure, which the President declared did more than anything else to fix in his mind the duty of giving freedom to the slaves. When the South seceded Mr. Owen gave himself heart and soul to the cause of the Union. Governor Mor-

ton sent him to the Eastern cities as an agent of the State of Indiana to purchase arms and clothing for the Indiana troops, and afterward sent him to Europe on a similar mission.

While engaged in these duties his pen was not idle, but wherever he could find an opportunity to write or speak for the Union he did so. In 1862 there was much talk in the West of forming a confederacy of the Northwestern States, with a view to its ultimate union with the South. Against this project Mr. Owen published a powerful pamphlet, and it was due as much to his efforts that it was stamped out, as to any other agency. Mr. Owen was employed on several important missions by President Lincoln, and was his warm supporter throughout the war.

It is for his services in the cause of freeing married women from the shackles imposed by the laws in regard to their property that Mr. Owen will be longest remembered. As a member of the constitutional convention he endeavored to have embodied in the organic law the following:

"Women hereafter married in this State shall have the right to acquire and possess property to their own sole use and disposal; and laws shall be passed securing to them, under equitable conditions, all property, real and personal, whether owned by them before marriage, or acquired afterward by purchase, gift, devise or descent; and providing also for the registration of the wife's separate property."

He failed in securing a majority vote for his proposition, but his speeches in its favor stand out as the ablest made on the floor of the convention on any subject. In one of them he said:

"I appeal to the successful settler, who has raised his cabin first in the wild woods, has gradually opened a flourishing farm, and at last has seen flow in upon him comfort and plenty, whether he alone and unaided built up his fortune and made comfortable his home? I ask him whether there was not one who saved while he accumulated; whether, when his arm was busy without, her hand was idle within? I ask him whether his heart does not revolt at the idea that when he is carried to his long home his widow shall see snatched from her, by an inhuman law, the very property her watchful care had mainly contrib-

uted to increase and keep together?"

After the close of the war Mr. Owen devoted himself to literary work, and to such a strain did he put his mental powers that for a while his brain gave way, but a short rest restored his mind. He died at his cottage on Lake George, June 24, 1877.

ALBERT GALLATIN PORTER.

Albert G. Porter will always be classed among the distinguished men of Indiana. He was a native of the State, and lived all his life among its people. He was born at Lawrenceburg, Dearborn County, April 20, 1824. He early displayed a love for books and evinced a desire for an education. After attending the schools at Lawrenceburg he entered Hanover College. From there he went to Asbury (now DePauw) University, at Greencastle, graduating in 1843. The next year he removed to Indianapolis and entered the office of the Auditor of State, as a clerk. He did not remain long, however, and returned to Lawrenceburg to study law. After completing his studies he returned to Indianapolis and began the practice of his profession. His first public office was that of Attorney for the City of Indianapolis, a place he held for two years. In 1853 a vacancy occurred in the office of Reporter of the Supreme Court, by the death of the incumbent, and Governor Wright appointed Mr. Porter to the vacancy. At the next election he was chosen for the full term. He had been a Democrat, and was fast coming to be a leader in that party, when the strife came over the extension of the area of slave territory. He then abandoned his party and threw in his fortunes with the new Republican party. In 1858 he was nominated for Congress by the Republicans of the Indianapolis district and was elected by a majority of more than one thousand, although two years before the district had given the Democratic nominee a majority of nearly one thousand. He was re-elected in 1860, and then declined to be a candidate again. In Congress he took high rank as a ready and able debater, and a conscientious legislator. So great was his popularity at home that he could have been re-nominated and re-elected term after term, had he so desired.

After retiring from Congress he applied himself diligently to the practice of his profession, but did not lose his interest in politics. He did not seek office, but when a political campaign came his services on the stump were demanded and freely given. In 1877, when John Sherman became Secretary of the Treasury, he tendered to Mr. Porter the position of Comptroller of the Treasury. It was an important office, its duties being wholly legal. He accepted the place, and until 1880 filled it with remarkable dignity and honor. His manners were courtly and pleasing, and he possessed the happy faculty of hearing and determining matters referred to him in such a way that but few ever complained of his decisions. While in Washington a great struggle grew up in his party at home over the nomination for Governor. Among the aspirants for that honor was General A. D. Streight, who had incurred the opposition of the leaders of the party. Streight was a man of great force of character with a positive disposition. Indiana was then an October State, and four years before had cast its vote for the Democratic ticket. The positive character of General Streight led the leaders of his party to believe he could not be elected, and if Indiana voted in October for the Democratic ticket it was felt the National contest in November would go the same way. They began looking around for some one whose personal popularity was great enough to carry the State, and finally decided upon Mr. Porter. When the convention met he was nominated, after a short struggle.

Immediately upon being notified of his nomination he resigned his office at Washington and returned to Indiana to enter upon a thorough canvass of the State. He at once took charge of his own campaign, and worked it in his own way. He proved a master hand in managing a political campaign. He went from county to county, held meetings with the party committees, obtained all the information possible about the voters deemed doubtful; interviewed many of them, or addressed them personal letters. He soon had the State in a blaze of excitement, and his party filled with enthusiasm. He made speeches day and night, mingled with the voters, and instructed the working committees. The campaign of 1880 will long be remembered as one of the most exciting the State has known. Immense

crowds attended the meetings, and the persuasive eloquence of Mr. Porter won the hesitating voter while it gave enthusiasm to the active worker. The election resulted in his favor. General Garfield was elected President in the following November. When President Garfield began making up his cabinet he desired to give Indiana a place, and the offer was made to General Harrison, but that gentleman had just been elected to the United States Senate, and declined. It was then offered to Governor Porter, who also declined, saying that the people had chosen him for the Chief Executive of the State, and he owed it to them to serve them.

His administration as Governor was a peaceful one. He was wise and thoughtful in his recommendations to the Legislature, careful in his appointments, and conscientious in the discharge of every duty. In 1888 he was selected by the friends of General Harrison to present his name to the Republican National Convention as a candidate for the Presidency. When General Harrison was nominated, and the campaign opened, Governor Porter took an active part. He had been solicited to become a candidate again for Governor, but declined. Soon after General Harrison became President Governor Porter received and accepted the appointment of United States Minister to Italy, and won new honors in the field of diplomacy. At the close of President Harrison's administration Governor Porter returned to his home in Indianapolis and devoted himself to writing a history of Indiana, for which he had been gathering the material for several years. He died May 3, 1897, before this work was completed.

Mr. Porter's strength before the people rested on his personal magnetism. He was persuasively eloquent in his speeches and public addresses, but it was his faculty of putting himself in hearty accord with the people that made his great strength.

WILLIAM H. ENGLISH.

William H. English came from a hardy stock. His father was one of the early pioneers of Indiana, settling in Scott County about the time the County was organized, and for many years was a prominent factor in the legisla-

tive and political history of the State. The son, William, was born in Scott County in August, 1822. He early developed a love of study, and having chosen the law for his profession was admitted to the bar at the age of eighteen. At the early age of twenty-three he was admitted to practice before the Supreme Court of the United States. In those early days all lawyers devoted much of their time to politics, and Mr. English was no exception to the rule. Almost before he had reached his majority he was one of the leaders of his party in his section of the State. During the administration of President Polk he drifted to Washington and became a clerk in the Treasury Department. He afterward served as clerk of one of the important committees of the Senate. In 1850, he was chosen as Principal Secretary of the convention which framed our present constitution, and became one of the notable members of that distinguished body.

Mr. English was elected a member of the first Legislature held under that constitution, and on the resignation of the Speaker of the House, John W. Davis, owing to a difference between the Speaker and the members of the House, Mr. English was promptly elected to that high office. In 1852 he was elected to Congress, and continued to represent the second district continuously until March, 1861. In Congress he took a leading part, his service covering the period when the Kansas agitation was shaking the foundations of the government. He was the author of what was known as the "English Bill," a measure intended to settle the vexed question and restore peace. He left Congress in 1861 with the respect of all parties, and devoted himself to business pursuits. During the war he was a steadfast friend of the Union, and was one of the trusted advisers of Governor Morton, although differing with him politically. He served for some time as Provost Marshal for the second district, and so firm was his administration, yet so careful was he at all times, that there was but little lawlessness in his district.

In 1880 he was nominated by his party for Vice President on the ticket with General Hancock. He failed of election, but the campaign left him with a high place in the estimation of the general public. Mr. English was a man of great force of character, and of a very high order of

ability. He was conservative by nature, and was always opposed to the radical measures advocated by either of the parties. His political creed was well announced once in an address he delivered to the Indiana Democratic Editorial Association, when he assured his audience that it was stability and not change the business men of the country wanted; that a policy might not be the best that could have been formulated, but once having been adopted, and the business interests of the country having been adjusted thereto, those interests would be better served by a continuation of that policy, than by changing, so as to create an uncertainty, and making necessary a readjustment of business relations. He was a diligent student of financial problems, and few men, if any, had a better comprehension of the relations between the Government and the financial interests of the country.

He was mentioned for the position of Secretary of the Treasury, when President Cleveland was forming his first cabinet, and the suggestion was received with marked favor throughout the country. His great knowledge of financial matters, coupled with his standing among the bankers and political leaders, would have made him a strong head of the Treasury Department.

He will always be regarded as one of the distinguished men of Indiana, both in politics and in business. He spent the last years of his life in preparing a history of the State, devoting to it great research. He lived to complete only that part of the work covering the conquest of the Northwest Territory. It will always be a source of great regret that he did not live to accomplish his intent to the full. His proposed work was on a comprehensive plan, including not only a general history of the State, but a full and complete account of the legislation from the very beginning, with biographical sketches of those who led in the work of founding an empire in this, the heart of the Ohio Valley, and the patient research he had given the preparation of the data would have made the complete work a valuable contribution to history. He died at his home in Indianapolis, February 7, 1896.

MICHAEL C. KERR.

If not a great man, Michael Crawford Kerr was an

honest, faithful and useful public servant. He was a man of pure conscience, strict integrity, and large ability. He was born near Titusville, Pennsylvania, March 15, 1827. At the age of eighteen he was graduated from Erie Academy. He emigrated to Kentucky and there taught school, afterward taking a law course at the Louisville University. In 1852 he removed to New Albany, Indiana, and made that place his home during the remainder of his life. As a lawyer he soon had a good practice, but he gave much of his time to politics, and in 1856, four years after he became a resident of New Albany, he was sent to the State Legislature. In 1860 he was a candidate for Reporter of the Supreme Court, but was defeated by Benjamin Harrison. Mr. Harrison afterward entered the army as Colonel of the Seventieth Indiana Regiment, and it was held that he had vacated his civil office. Mr. Kerr was re-nominated by his party in 1862, and as the opposition did not recognize the claim that Mr. Harrison had vacated his office, no other candidate was voted for, and Mr. Kerr was declared elected. Two years afterward General Harrison was re-elected and the office was surrendered to him. The same year Mr. Kerr was elected to Congress from the New Albany district. He was three times re-elected.

It was during his first race that he set the seal to his claim to be regarded as a loyal and law-abiding citizen. The Knights of the Golden Circle were just then becoming very strong in the State, and had laid a plan to overturn the State Government, kill Governor Morton and throw the State into civil war. About the time of the assembling of the Democratic congressional convention, before which Kerr expected to be a candidate, he was advised of the designs of this secret organization. He at once called together some of his friends and informed them of his discoveries. He declared his intention to withdraw from the race and go at once to Indianapolis and lay before the State authorities the information he had obtained, and denounce the plot as treason. He was strengthened in his determination to expose the conspiracy by his friends, but was persuaded to remain a candidate. As soon as he was nominated he went to Indianapolis, called a meeting of prominent Democrats, and boldly and vehemently denounced the schemes of the Knights of the Golden Circle,

and communicated to the State authorities what information he possessed.

In 1872, Indiana having been given two more Congressmen, and the State not having been redistricted, Mr. Kerr became the candidate of his party for Congressman-at-large, but was defeated by Godlove S. Orth. Two years later he was again the candidate of his district, and was once more triumphantly elected, and when Congress met in December, 1875, he was elected Speaker of the House, defeating James G. Blaine, the candidate of the Republicans. He died during his term of office, his death occurring at Rockbridge Springs, Virginia, where he had gone for his health, on August 19, 1876. As Speaker of the House he was very popular with all parties. He was not an orator, but spoke well on all subjects he undertook to discuss. In Congress he was a working member, always assiduous in attending to his duties. While he was Speaker an attempt was made to blacken his character. Lawrence Harney, a lobbyist, charged that he had, some years previously, paid Mr. Kerr \$450 for securing a position in the regular army for one Augustus P. Greene. A committee was appointed to investigate the charge, and after thoroughly sifting it, reported that it was wholly devoid of truth. On motion of Mr. Garfield, of Ohio, afterward President, the report of the committee, exonerating Mr. Kerr, was adopted by a rising vote, every member recording his approval of the finding of the committee.

THOMAS ANDREW HENDRICKS.

Thomas A. Hendricks will always stand as one of the great men of Indiana. As a party leader he ranks with Oliver P. Morton, his great political rival. He easily stands first among the Democrats of the State, both as a statesman and as a party leader. He was born on a farm in Muskingum County, Ohio, September 7, 1817. While he was still an infant his parents removed to Indiana, making Madison their home. Not long afterward they removed to Shelbyville, Shelby County, then a frontier village. Thomas received his education in the village schools, and at Hanover College. After leaving college he studied law and began the practice of his profession. He advanced rapidly,

and soon became known as a lawyer of great ability. Not only was he well versed in the science and intricacies of the law, but he had a manner so pleasing and an eloquence so captivating, that he easily took rank at the head of the bar. In 1850 he was elected a delegate to the convention called to construct a new constitution for the State. He at once became a leader of the majority, in that convention, and his powers as a debater gave him a State fame, and his adroitness secured him a high place in the confidence of his party.

In 1851 he was the candidate of his party, in the Shelbyville district, for Congress, and was elected. He was re-elected the next year, but in 1854 was defeated, owing to a combination of the free soil Democrats and Know Nothings. A few months later he was appointed Commissioner of the General Land Office by President Pierce. In Washington he soon became as popular among the national leaders of his party as he was in Indiana. It mattered not what position he held, he was sure to fill it with dignity and signal ability. In 1860 his party was divided into two factions. The large majority were adherents of Senator Douglas, while the minority supported Vice President Breckinridge. When united they had only been able to carry the State, in 1856, by a few thousand plurality, and divided, their prospects of success were anything but cheering. In looking for a candidate for Governor, who could unite the two factions in his support, the choice fell unanimously upon Mr. Hendricks. He was the one prominent Democrat who had no enemies in his own party. He possessed a peculiar faculty of pouring oil on the troubled political waters, and keeping the party together, and also of working up the greatest amount of enthusiasm.

The Republicans nominated for the same office Henry S. Lane, the most eloquent man in their party, and one who, like Mr. Hendricks, had no enemies. The two candidates entered upon a joint canvass of the State. Mr. Lane was the more eloquent of the two, but was not the equal of Mr. Hendricks as a debater. It was a remarkable contest, and notwithstanding the division in the Democratic party, Mr. Hendricks was only defeated by about ten thousand votes. Two years later his party was again in the ascendancy in the State, and he was elected to the United

States Senate for the full term of six years. It was during the heat of the Civil War, and Mr. Hendricks almost at a bound became one of the recognized Democratic leaders in the Senate. So prominent did he become, and so strongly did he fasten himself in the favor of his party, that his name was frequently mentioned in connection with the nomination for President in 1868. Mr. Hendricks was ambitious to reach that high distinction, and he managed his fight for the nomination with consummate skill. There was a strong feeling in the party that a military leader was necessary to insure success, or a candidate who had been active in support of the war measures of the Government. Chief Justice Chase had been one of the original leaders of the Republican party, had been a very strong competitor of Mr. Lincoln, in 1860, and had been his Secretary of the Treasury. When he first entered political life he had been a Democrat, but had forsaken that party on account of its attitude on the slavery question. During Mr. Lincoln's administration he had partly severed his connection with the Republicans, and many Democrats favored his nomination, thinking it would unite, in his favor, many other Democrats who had been acting with the Republicans. George H. Pendleton, of Ohio, was also a strong candidate.

Under the rule in Democratic conventions, a two-thirds vote was necessary to a nomination. Mr. Hendricks believed that neither General Hancock, who was the favorite of those seeking a military leader, Mr. Chase nor Mr. Pendleton could secure the necessary two-thirds vote, and thought that a new man would have to be brought forward. Under his instructions the Indiana delegation was to vote steadily for Mr. Pendleton, who was the candidate of a neighboring State, until his friends were willing to admit that he had no chance for a nomination. When that time came, the Indiana delegates were to bring forward the name of Mr. Hendricks. Had this counsel been followed, there is little reason for doubting that Mr. Hendricks would have been the nominee. But at a certain stage of the proceedings, and while Mr. Pendleton's supporters were still hopeful, Mr. Hendricks's Indiana friends thought the time had come for them to change their voting, and withdrew from the convention for consultation. The friends of

Mr. Pendleton were at once convinced they had been betrayed, and worked swiftly and surely to defeat Mr. Hendricks, causing the name of Mr. Seymour, of New York, to be sprung upon the convention, and he was nominated at once.

While still a member of the Senate Mr. Hendricks was again nominated for Governor, in 1868, and entered with all his ardor into the campaign work. The result of the election was a great personal triumph for Mr. Hendricks. He was defeated by less than one thousand, while General Grant, a month later, carried the State against Mr. Seymour by 9500. Mr. Hendricks was the idol of his party, and four years later was again nominated for Governor, and was elected by 1148 majority. With one exception he was the only candidate on his ticket elected, the Republicans electing the Lieutenant Governor, and all the other State officers (except Superintendent of Public Instruction) and a majority in both branches of the General Assembly. One month later General Grant carried the State by 22,515, over Horace Greeley. Mr. Hendricks's administration as Governor was a prosperous one for the State. In 1876 his friends determined to make another effort to nominate him for the Presidency. The convention decided in favor of Samuel J. Tilden, of New York, and Mr. Hendricks was unanimously named for the second place. He personally strongly objected to making the race for Vice President, but was overruled by his friends. Having accepted the nomination he determined to again test his personal popularity in Indiana. He made the supreme fight of his life, and his party was successful, both in October and in November. A contest arising over the electoral votes of some of the States, the matter was referred to a joint commission, raised by Congress for that purpose, and the Republican candidates were awarded the places.

In 1880 Mr. Hendricks again desired the nomination, but the feeling was strong in the party that the ticket of 1876 ought to be re-nominated, and make another appeal to the people. To this, however, Mr. Hendricks would not consent, and General Hancock was made the candidate. Four years later Mr. Hendricks was again a candidate, but Grover Cleveland, of New York, carried away the prize and once more Mr. Hendricks was unanimously nominated

for the second place. This was very repugnant to him, but he finally accepted, at the earnest solicitation of the party leaders. The Republicans had nominated Mr. Blaine, who had been very strong in Indiana, but Mr. Hendricks once more appealed to his fellow citizens, and carried his ticket triumphantly through. He took the oath of office as Vice President on the 4th of March, 1885. As President of the Senate his urbane manners and his strict impartiality won him additional friends. He differed with Mr. Cleveland on questions of party policy, and an estrangement grew up between them. Mr. Hendricks died suddenly November 25, 1885. His death was universally deplored and was followed by every evidence of popular sorrow.

SCHUYLER COLFAX.

Although not a native of the State, Schuyler Colfax was, in every sense, a product of Indiana. He was born in New York, March 23, 1823. When but a lad he came with his parents to Indiana, where they settled in St. Joseph County. All the education he ever received, by attendance on schools, was before he was ten years of age, but he was a careful student throughout life. He received the appointment as Deputy Auditor of St. Joseph County, and while acting in that capacity studied law. He engaged in newspaper work before he was twenty years old as reporter of the proceedings of the General Assembly for the Indianapolis Journal. He afterwards became editor of the St. Joseph Register, in which capacity he displayed such talent that he was soon known as one of the most influential newspaper writers in the State. In 1848, when he was only twenty-six years of age, he was a delegate to the National convention of the Whigs, and was chosen Secretary of that body. In 1850 he was a member of the convention which framed the present constitution of the State, and was regarded as one of the ablest members, although one of the youngest. In 1851 he was nominated by the Whigs for Congress, but was defeated by Graham N. Fitch, afterward a member of the United States Senate. In 1852 he was again a delegate to the Whig National convention.

Two years later he was again a candidate for Congress and was elected by a handsome majority. Six times he was

re-elected. His Congressional campaigns were counted as among the most brilliant known in the political history of the State. In Congress he soon took a leading position and was classed among the best debaters. In 1863 he was elected Speaker of the House of Representatives, and re-elected in 1865 and 1867. He was known as one of the ablest Speakers the House had ever had. He was quick and ready with his decisions, and was a perfect master of parliamentary law. During his service on the floor of the House he had held several important committee places, and had become a warm friend and adviser of President Lincoln. During his Speakership it is doubtful if there was a man in public life in this country personally more popular. In 1868 he was nominated for Vice President, on the ticket with General Grant, and was elected. His term of service as Speaker of the House ended upon the very day he took his seat as President of the Senate.

While serving as Vice President the Credit Mobilier scandal was brought to light, and Mr. Oakes Ames, the principal engineer of the Credit Mobilier scheme, connected the name of Mr. Colfax with it. It developed that Mr. Colfax had agreed to purchase some of the stock, but had withdrawn from the agreement before the stock was transferred. The public was just then so exercised over the scandal that Mr. Colfax, at the end of his term as Vice President, voluntarily retired to private life. He devoted himself to lecturing, and added greatly to his fame. He died suddenly at Mankato, Minnesota, in a railroad station. He was the first Indianian to receive a nomination for the Vice Presidency by either of the leading parties. One had preceded him as Speaker of the National House of Representatives, but he only served one term.

OLIVER PERRY MORTON.

No other public man of Indiana has been so closely interwoven with the history of the State as Oliver Perry Morton. He came into public life at the birth of a great political party, a party which for twenty-five years, at the most important crisis of the nation's existence, controlled its destinies. He became Governor of the State just before the breaking out of the War of the Rebellion, and for

six years acted as such, his rare executive ability finding full scope in the tremendous responsibility which devolved upon him. From the Governor's chair he stepped to a seat in the United States Senate when the reconstruction of the Union was the absorbing topic. In that body his powers as a debater had full swing, and made him one of the most prominent figures in the Nation. The opportunities came and found the man ready. Other able Governors Indiana has had, but none who had the same opportunities in that office to win lasting and honorable fame. It was in the hey-day of youth he took the oath of office as Governor of the Commonwealth. He was full of physical and mental vigor, and although the youngest of the war Governors, within a few months he became the best known of them all, and the trusted friend and adviser of Lincoln, Stanton, Grant and the other great leaders of the Union. Upon him they all relied, and to him they instinctively turned in every crisis.

Oliver Perry Morton was born August 4, 1823, in Wayne County, Indiana. He attended the schools of Wayne County, and afterward went to Miami University, in Ohio. His bent was to the law, and after a course of study he was admitted to the bar and began the practice. It was not long until he became one of the leading lawyers of Eastern Indiana. He rose rapidly in his profession. His mind was of the analytical kind, and he was a hard student.

Like all young lawyers in those days, he entered with zest into politics. He was a Democrat, and when he had barely reached his majority he was classed as one of the leaders of his party in Eastern Indiana, and within half a dozen years he was known as one of the State leaders. When slavery became the absorbing issue, and the attempt was made to strike down the Missouri compromise, he left his party and united with those who opposed the further extension of slavery. The Republican party was just then being organized, and with it he threw in his fortunes. Already famed as a political debater of extraordinary powers, he at once became the leader of the new party in Indiana. In 1856, when it met to nominate a State ticket, Mr. Morton was selected as its candidate for Governor. He at once entered upon an active canvass of the State. His opponent was Ashbel P. Willard, then the foremost orator

among the Democrats. As an orator Mr. Willard had few equals, and in Indiana had no superior. He was the idol of his party, and with the people was wonderfully popular. It was against him the leader of the new party was pitted.

With rare exceptions Indiana had been under the control of the Democratic party from the very organization of the State Government. When the Whig party died the Know Nothings sprang into an ephemeral existence, and in 1856 they were still strong in the State. Many old Whigs had united with the Democrats, and many Democrats had followed Morton into the camp of the new party. So far, however, it was in a chrysalis state. It sprang into existence in a revolt against the extension of slavery, and gathered into its folds the Free Soil Democrats, some of the old Whigs, some of the Know Nothings and some of the Abolitionists. Its elements were many, and were as inharmonious as they were varied. Practically they agreed touching only one thing—opposition to slavery. The Abolitionists wanted abolition pure and simple; the Free Soil Democrats and the Old Line Whigs were willing to let slavery alone where it existed, but opposed its extension into new territory; the Know Nothings, or at least many of them, cared little about slavery, but were opposed to Democracy.

It was as the chosen leader of these inharmonious elements Mr. Morton entered public life. He had a party to organize and mold into a perfect working machine, as well as to struggle for the highest office in the State. He gave his days to speech making before the people, and his nights to organization, and to directing the efforts of his party friends. Those who knew him best were amazed at the amount of work he performed. Within less than one month he demonstrated that he was not only one of the ablest political debaters the State had ever produced, but was the most subtle, the most perfect of party organizers. Before the close of the campaign his new party was welded together, with able and astute leaders in every County, and the leaders were all "Morton men." In the campaign the Democrats had the prestige of years of victory. Their party organization had long been perfect. Jesse D. Bright, their ablest party manipulator, gave all his powers to holding his party intact. Ashbel P. Willard, with his wonder-

ful oratory, stirred the hearts of his followers as they had never been stirred before. Joseph A. Wright, who for seven years had been Governor, and was ranked as the most successful canvasser any party in the State had known, exerted all his powers to stem the tide that was setting in against his party. It was one of the most remarkable political campaigns in the history of Indiana. Four years before the Democrats had carried the State by a little more than 20,000 majority. In 1856 Morton was defeated by less than 6000.

After the campaign Mr. Morton returned to the practice of his profession, but was still looked upon as the real leader of his party. When it came time to select a ticket in 1860, new combinations came up. There was still a large remnant of the Know Nothings and it was thought they held the balance of power in the State; also it was believed that Mr. Morton's past Democratic record would keep many Old Line Whigs from voting with the Republicans. For success it was necessary to combine all the elements of opposition, and it was determined to put at the head of the ticket Henry S. Lane, who had long been known as the "silver-tongued orator," and who always had been identified with the Whig party, and to give Morton the second place. To this Morton strongly objected, urging that four years before he had led a forlorn hope, and that it was mainly through his efforts the party had come so near victory, and that for him to accept the second place on the ticket would be to practically retire him from public life. It was finally on the understanding that if the party succeeded Mr. Lane was to be sent to the Senate, which would make Mr. Morton Governor, that he consented to accept the place. Once more he threw himself into the work of organization, and of canvassing the State. His ticket was successful, and in the January following he became the acting Governor.

Before he became Governor he had attracted the attention of Mr. Lincoln and the country through a speech made at Indianapolis a few evenings after the November election. The Republicans had met to rejoice over the election of Mr. Lincoln, and Mr. Morton was among the speakers. He took strong ground for coercion in case any of the Southern States seceded. In that speech he declared he would rather come out of a seven years' war defeated than

to admit without a contest the right of secession. Within a week after the Legislature met in January, 1861, Governor Lane was elected to the Senate, to succeed Graham N. Fitch, and Morton became Governor. In less than two months war came. It was then that Governor Morton had his opportunity to display his wonderful executive ability on a broader scale than in organizing a political party. From that time to the close of the war he was the leader of the Union sentiment in Indiana and the West. His energy kept the State always abreast of the demands of the Government for troops. His zeal and foresight outran that of the Government. He was the first to see that the war was to be a long one and that arms and supplies would have to be brought from Europe, and very early in the contest he sent an agent to Europe to make purchases on behalf of the State.

He was specially energetic in caring for the comfort of Indiana troops, and sent agents everywhere to look after them. He labored assiduously in their behalf. He made appeals to the people of Indiana for hospital supplies; chartered steamers and railroad trains to send them to the front, and sent agents with them to superintend their distribution.

It was to him that Generals in command in Kentucky turned whenever danger threatened that State, and he astonished the people and other Governors by the rapidity with which he dispatched troops and armaments. At one time the President seriously considered making him a Major General of volunteers and putting him in command in Kentucky. It will be remembered that Kentucky at first assumed a position of neutrality. To one of Governor Morton's peculiar make-up such a thing was very abhorrent, and he urged almost daily that the Government should move troops into Kentucky and protect the loyal element. In Indiana he urged men of all parties to come to the help of the Government, and was especially solicitous to give commands in the field to Democrats. In this his open object was to bring all parties into unison in supporting the Government, but it was wise politics, for by far the larger portion of those officers eventually allied themselves with the Republicans.

He was among the first and the most persistent in urging

the Government to open the Mississippi River, contending that it would do more to end the rebellion and prevent foreign nations from interfering than anything else that could be done. For two years he had comparatively smooth sailing, in the affairs of the State. The majority of the Legislature and all the State officers were of his party, and they cordially supported him. In 1862, however, the election went in favor of the Democrats, and when the Legislature met, a decidedly hostile feeling toward Morton and his policy was manifested. No appropriations were made to carry on the State Government or to pay the interest on the State debt. It was then the Governor made a bold move, disregarding the constitution and the laws. He borrowed from bankers and others hundreds of thousands of dollars with which to meet the expenses of the State, and to pay the interest on the debt. He organized a financial bureau of his own and disbursed that money, ignoring the State officers entirely. It was a bold move, but had the support of his party, and the next session of the General Assembly so far endorsed his action as to order the money borrowed to be repaid out of the State treasury.

Several attempts were made upon his life. The most notable one was when the Knights of the Golden Circle conspired to kill him and seize upon the State Government. In 1864 he was again the candidate of his party for Governor, and this time the tide was in favor of the Republicans and he was triumphantly elected. His arduous services continued until the close of the war. The winter of 1864-5 was an especially trying one, and Governor Morton was on the move almost continually. He was frequently called to Washington to advise with the President, and at other times he was at the front, looking after the wants of Indiana soldiers, visiting the hospitals, and the troops in the field. His wonderful vitality kept him up, but it was afterward seen that he had overtaxed his strength. The reaction came when the long struggle was over and the troops had returned to their home. In the summer of 1865 he was stricken with paralysis in the lower part of his body. The paralysis did not affect his mental powers, for they appeared to grow stronger until his death, which did not occur until November 1, 1877.

It appearing that no help could be had in this country

for his affliction, he determined to visit Paris, to consult the eminent physicians of that city. He called the Legislature together in extraordinary session, turned the administration of the affairs of the State over to Lieutenant Governor Conrad Baker, and sailed almost immediately afterward for Paris. At that time Maximillian was on the throne in Mexico, and Governor Morton received instructions from the President and Secretary of State to take occasion to urge upon the Emperor Napoleon that a longer stay of the French troops in Mexico would be regarded as an unfriendly act by this Government. It has been claimed it was the representations made by Governor Morton that induced the French Emperor to order his troops home from Mexico, a movement which resulted in the final overthrow of Maximillian.

Governor Morton remained abroad for several months but received no permanent benefit from the treatment. In January, 1867, he was elected to a seat in the United States Senate to succeed Henry S. Lane. His prestige as Governor, and his reputation as a great political debater, at once gave him a prominent position in the Senate, and he soon became the acknowledged leader of his party in that body. He took an active part in the legislation of that period, and in the discussion of reconstruction measures he was ever foremost. Sumner, Conkling and others of the old leaders of the party were there, but Morton was the leader. It was at the time of the struggle between President Johnson and Congress, and Morton became the leader of those who opposed the policy of the President. It was due to him more than to any other man that the amendments to the constitution on the rights of the colored people were ratified by the requisite number of States.

All this time he maintained his hold upon his party in Indiana. He had little of the conciliatory spirit in his nature, and did not brook any revolt against his leadership. He made enemies in his own party, but he trampled upon them instead of endeavoring to placate them. During the Presidency of General Grant he was one of the most trusted advisors of the administration, and on one occasion the President tendered him the British Ministry. It was at the time when the feeling in both countries was embittered over the claims on account of the Alabama depredations.

At that time it was doubtful how the next election might result in Indiana, and should it be in favor of the Democrats, a member of that party would be chosen to succeed him in the Senate, so, true to his party instincts he declined the offer. In 1873 he was re-elected to the Senate. By the time he began his second term no one disputed the leadership in the Senate with him. His name began to be associated with the nomination by his party for the Presidency. He was without doubt the ablest man in his party at that day. He was regarded as radical on the doctrine of reconstruction, and upon the subordination of the States to the Union, but his radicalism met with the support of the strongest element of his party. He polled a strong vote in the convention at Cincinnati, but failed of the nomination.

The election resulted in a dispute over the electoral vote of several of the Southern States, which for a time threatened the overturning of the Government. A contest was made of the vote of Louisiana, Florida, South Carolina, and of one elector in Oregon. A graver crisis never presented itself. Party feeling had run high, and fears were entertained that bloodshed would follow an attempt to inaugurate Mr. Hayes, whose election was claimed, but not conceded by his opponents. In Congress it was proposed to meet the crisis by submitting the whole question of the disputed votes to a commission of fifteen created for the special purpose; five were to be chosen by the House of Representatives, five by the Senate, and five taken from the members of the Supreme Court. Senator Morton opposed this proposition with all his power. He claimed that under the constitution the President of the Senate was alone empowered to count the vote and declare the result; that he could only count such votes as had been properly certified to him, and that his power and right to count the votes could not be taken from him and delegated to others, nor could any authority be given to others to determine what votes he should count. He further contended that no commission could be made up whose decision would be satisfactory; that it was proposed to divide the commission as nearly equal as possible between the two parties, and take as the fifteenth member one not closely identified with either party, and it was possible the commission would divide on

the more important questions involved, and in that case one man's vote would determine the result; that should it happen the commission divided on party lines the members would be accused of letting their party feelings control their action.

The feeling for compromise was too strong, however, and the bill became a law, and then what Senator Morton had predicted actually happened. The commission did divide on all important questions on party lines. Notwithstanding his opposition to the measure Senator Morton was chosen at the head of the Senatorial part of the commission over Senator Conkling, who had been the champion of the bill. By the law the decision of the contested votes was left to the commission and its decision was to be binding, and make the title to the Presidency good, but it failed of proving satisfactory to either party.

Among other things Senator Morton took strong ground in favor of electing the President by a direct vote of the people, doing away with the Electoral College. One of the ablest speeches he made during his Senatorial career was on this question. During the later years of his service in the Senate he was chairman of the committee on elections and privileges. In 1877 with a part of his committee he visited Oregon. This was his last public service. He returned from the journey completely broken down in health. He lingered until the first of November, when his life ended.

BENJAMIN HARRISON.

Benjamin Harrison has taken his place among the great statesmen of the country. He is the only citizen of Indiana that has reached the highest political position in this country, and the highest, as Americans are wont to declare, in the world. In that great office he proved himself the peer of any man who had preceded him. Benjamin Harrison was born at North Bend, Ohio, August 20, 1833. His father had been a member of Congress; his grandfather had been a Major General in the army, a Senator in Congress, and President of the United States; his great-grandfather had been Governor of Virginia, member of the Continental Congress, and a signer of the Declaration of Inde-

pendence. Thus he came from an ancestry distinguished in the service of the country. General Harrison was educated at Miami University, studied law and made Indianapolis his home. He began his professional life poor in this world's goods, but strong in intellect, and in his knowledge of his profession. He was also strong in his conscientious regard for the right. He began to climb the professional ladder slowly but surely. He soon developed great skill as an attorney, but in those days in Indiana men did not get to the top of the ladder by leaps and bounds, but by steady, persistent climbing. So it was that the young advocate from Ohio made his way. He entered into politics and it was on the stump he established his greatest reputation at that time. He was a speaker of remarkable force and clearness, and as young as he was, he was soon recognized as one of the strongest political debaters the young Republican party had in Indiana. So well was his ability recognized that in 1860, when he had been in the State but five years, he was made the nominee of his party for the responsible position of Reporter of the decisions of the Supreme Court. He entered at once upon a canvass of the State, and added to his reputation as a speaker. He was then but twenty-seven years of age, slight and boyish in figure, but his cogent reasoning, his strong, terse way of putting things before his audience, made him one of the marked men of the campaign. The tickets of the two parties that year were both far above the average in ability. On the Republican side were Henry S. Lane, "the silver-tongued orator," and the most captivating speaker in the State, if not in all the West; Oliver P. Morton, who four years before had proved himself a giant in political debate, and who had contested for political honors with Ashbel P. Willard, the eloquent and zealous champion of Democracy, and Benjamin Harrison. Among the Democrats were Thomas A. Hendricks, ready in debate, persuasive in eloquence, captivating in manners; David Turpie, even then keen, incisive and bitter, and Michael C. Kerr, who afterward became Speaker of the National House of Representatives. Six as able political debaters never were pitted against each other in the State, and among them Mr. Harrison was entitled to stand.

The contest resulted in the election of the Republican ticket. Mr. Harrison took the office to which he had been

elected, and its emoluments were a welcome addition to his income. The war followed, and it was not long before he began to turn over in his mind the question as to his duty. In 1862 he tendered his services to Governor Morton, and was appointed Colonel of the Seventieth Regiment. He left his office and took up the duties of a soldier. His regiment was sent to the front, and soon became known as one of the best in the service. Through Kentucky, Tennessee and Georgia it fought its way to Atlanta. At Resaca it especially distinguished itself by making a desperate charge upon the enemy. From Atlanta it followed Sherman to Savannah, and then up through the Carolinas to the grand review at Washington.

The office of Reporter of the Supreme Court, to which he had been elected in 1860, carried with it a term of four years, but it had been declared that he had vacated it by accepting an office in the army, so in 1864, when his term would have expired had he remained in office, he was again nominated by his party, and was once more elected. In every political campaign he took a prominent part, and in 1872 was a candidate for the nomination for Governor, but was defeated in the convention by General Thomas M. Browne. He diligently pursued his profession, and became known as one of the ablest lawyers in the State, if not the ablest. In 1876 the Republicans nominated Godlove S. Orth as their candidate for Governor, but in the heat of the campaign, and when the election was only six weeks off, he withdrew from the ticket, and the party committee put General Harrison in his place. Mr. Hendricks was leading the Democratic ticket, as a candidate for Vice President, and the campaign was a most exciting one. General Harrison was absent from the State when he was substituted for Mr. Orth, but came home and at once entered upon a canvass of the State, which for power has seldom been equaled. He was defeated before the people, but was stronger with his party than ever before.

When the great campaign of 1880 opened, by almost common consent it was understood that if his party was successful he was to be made United States Senator. His party prevailed, and he received the caucus nomination and was duly elected, and entered upon the discharge of his new duties March 4, 1881. After his election, and be-

fore he took his seat President Garfield offered him a place in his cabinet, but he preferred to go to the Senate. In a very short time he became known as one of the strongest debaters in that body, and took a front rank among the leaders of his party. His race for a re-election, in 1886, will long be remembered as one of the most exciting political campaigns the State has known, and especially for an election at which no Governor or President was to be voted for. At the two preceding elections the Democrats had carried the State, and it was expected they would have a large majority in the Legislature on joint ballot. Mr. Harrison organized his campaign with great political shrewdness, and conducted it so successfully that the Democrats only had a majority of two on joint ballot. After a prolonged and excited contest, David Turpie was elected to succeed General Harrison. The balloting had continued from January 18 to February 2.

The friends of Mr. Harrison at once set about the work of securing for him the nomination of his party for President at the next National convention. His name had been used in connection with the nomination in 1884, and his conspicuous services in the Senate had drawn the attention of the country to him. His party in Indiana declared for him, and thus put him formally before the country.

The convention met at Chicago, in June. A number of candidates were before it, among them being Mr. Sherman, of Ohio; Mr. Allison, of Iowa, and Judge Walter Q. Gresham, then also of Indiana. Mr. Blaine also had a strong following, notwithstanding he had declared he could not be a candidate. The contest was one of great excitement, and the result was in much doubt. Mr. Harrison gained from the start in the balloting, and on the eighth ballot was nominated. Then followed a wonderful campaign, in which General Harrison displayed powers and resources as an orator which astonished the world. From the day of his nomination until the election he was visited, almost daily, by delegations from some section of the country, and he addressed each one. He was elected and took his seat March 4, 1889.

His administration was characterized by great ability. It was an era of high tide prosperity for the country, and was made notable by several international questions,

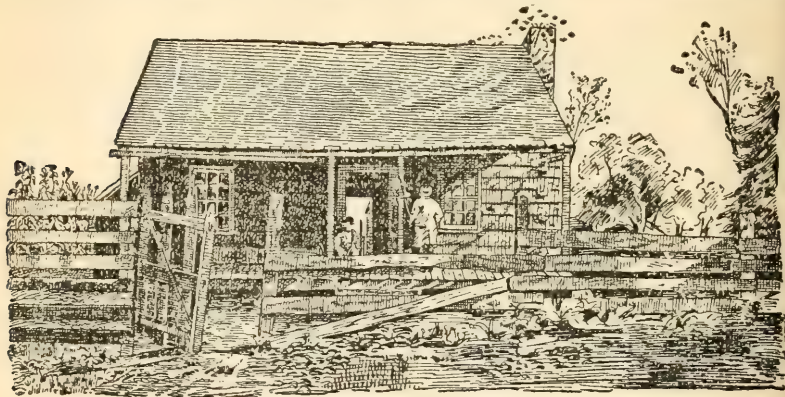
the most important being that regarding the seal fishing in the Alaskan waters. It was finally settled by arbitration. A difficulty arose with Chili over an attack made upon some of the sailors of an American war vessel, but that, too, was settled, Chili apologizing for the act and paying an indemnity. A mob in New Orleans killed several Italians. President Harrison at once acknowledged the liability of the Federal Government for the outrage, and an indemnity was paid to the families of the victims. His administration was ever firm in its attitude upon all international questions, and won respect at home and abroad. The great Congress of American Republics was held during his administration, and much was done to strengthen the influence of the United States with the Spanish-American Governments.

In 1892 he was nominated again by his party, but was defeated at the election by Grover Cleveland, whom he had beaten four years before. At the end of his term he returned to his home in Indianapolis, taking with him, in his retirement from public life, the confidence and respect of all parties. During the last year of his life he made several notable contributions to the discussion of public questions and took a pronounced position against the colonial policy of President McKinley's administration. He died March 13, 1901.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

In 1816, just a month or two before Indiana was admitted into the Union as one of the sisterhood of States, among the immigrants seeking a home in the wilderness was one that deserves more than a passing notice, for his fame has filled the world, and with Americans he stands by the side of Washington. One evening at the little horse ferry, on the Ohio River, near the mouth of Anderson's Creek, in Spencer County, appeared a wagon loaded with the few household goods of the father of Abraham Lincoln. Few men could have been poorer than Thomas Lincoln. In the front of the wagon sat his wife and their nine-year-old daughter, while the father and son, then a little more than seven years of age, followed, driving the cow. All their worldly possessions they had with them.

To all ordinary appearances the future had but little in store for any of them. Out among the hills of Spencer County the little family wandered, searching for a home. A farm near where the town of Gentryville now stands was selected and the work of putting up a small cabin began. In that humble cabin Abraham Lincoln lived for thirteen years; there he received all the schooling he ever had, and it was from there he made his first trip as a flatboatman



INDIANA CABIN HOME OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

to New Orleans. It was on that trip he first witnessed the horrors of slavery—horrors that forced from him the involuntary vow that if ever he got an opportunity to “hit that thing, I will hit it hard, by the Eternal God!” It was there also that he lost his mother, and there her dust still remains. His life in his Indiana home was one of toil and privation; toil in assisting his father to clear off the timber from the farm and preparing the soil for cultivation. In those days there was not much in the future to encourage the young farmer, but he kept industriously at his work, gathering up what little stores of knowledge he could from his occasional opportunities for attending school and from reading such books as he could borrow from his neighbors.

A few months before he arrived at the age of twenty-one he went with his father to Illinois. His after history is known to the world. The long, angular boy from the hills of Indiana became the great President of the country, guiding her destinies amid the clash of arms with a

wisdom that now seems to have been almost inspired. Whence came his wonderful insight into the motives which move men? Whence came his knowledge of diplomacy? Born in the wilderness of Kentucky, reared to manhood among the hills of Indiana, and trained on the prairies of Illinois, he surpassed in all true greatness all the great men of his time. He was a greater diplomat than his world-renowned Secretary of State; he had a broader grasp of the fundamental principles of national financiering, than his Secretary of the Treasury; he was wiser in politics than all the politicians of his time, and displayed the elements of a great commander. It was the judgment of all his Generals who came in personal contact with him, that had he taken command in the field he would have been a great strategist. With an abiding faith in the future of the country, he clung to the idea of the Union with a tenacity that never gave way to despair, or even to doubt. Noble and great hearted, he was ever ready to extend the hand of peace to those in armed resistance to his authority. He was derided and reviled during the four years of struggle, but bore it all with fortitude and patience.

This great and wise statesman; this pure and unselfish patriot, grew from childhood to manhood in Indiana, and a tribute to his memory is not out of place in the history of the State. In a lonely spot, near a little village now called Lincoln City, is the grave of his mother. It was uncared for until a few years ago, when a small monument was erected over it by a private citizen, and the lot was surrounded by an iron fence. It is now the property of an Association and a new and handsome monument has been erected, which was formally dedicated October 1, 1902.

JOSEPH E. M'DONALD.

For more than a quarter of a century Joseph E. McDonald was one of the marked men of Indiana. Of such sterling integrity in all the walks of life was he, that for many years he was familiarly known as "Honest Old Saddlebags." Joseph Ewing McDonald was born in Butler County, Ohio, August 20, 1819. He was of Scotch and French descent. His father was a farmer, industrious, of

liberal mind and advanced thought. He died while Joseph was an infant. His mother was of Huguenot blood, of good education, and possessed strong intellectual qualities. To this very superior woman her husband left the care of an infant family, and she was well worthy the trust. She was a writer of more than ordinary ability, and wrote stories for the amusement of her children, but all the stories had an educational tendency.

Within a few years after the death of her husband Mrs. McDonald remarried, and the family removed to Indiana in 1826, settling on a farm in Montgomery County. Joseph remained on the farm until he was twelve years of age, during a part of which time he attended school in Crawfordsville. At an early age he made up his mind to study law, but no opportunity offering to secure the education necessary to begin such a course of study, at the age of twelve he apprenticed himself to a saddle-maker. He pursued his trade diligently and earnestly, but devoted all his spare time to study. He served an apprenticeship of six years and became an expert workman.

In 1838 he was able to enter Wabash College. He remained at Wabash until 1840, when he became a student at Asbury (now DePauw). He remained at Asbury only one term. He taught school one term, and then became a clerk in the store of his brother at Williamsport. He had not abandoned his intention of becoming a lawyer, and in 1842 entered a law office at Lafayette, and began the active study of his chosen profession. So earnestly did he apply himself that after studying one year he was able to pass the examination and receive his license to practice. Before he received his license he was nominated for Prosecuting Attorney, to which office he was elected. He served four years, and was counted one of the best Prosecuting Attorneys of that time. In 1847 he removed to Crawfordsville, and there built up a large practice.

Like all lawyers of that day he gave much attention to politics, and in 1849 was elected to Congress, defeating Henry S. Lane. Being opposed to the radical demands of the South, he only served one term. The office of Attorney General having been created by the Legislature, Mr. McDonald was elected to this position in 1856, being the first to be elected to that position by the people, his predeces-

sor having been appointed by the Governor. At the close of his term, in 1859, he removed to Indianapolis and entered actively on the practice of his profession, which he followed closely during the remainder of his life, except the term of his service in the United States Senate, being regarded as one of the ablest lawyers in the State.

In 1864 he was nominated by the Democratic party for Governor. At the election in 1862 that party had been successful at the polls, and when the ticket was nominated in 1864 its prospects were considered excellent. It was in the heat of the civil war. The Democratic National convention had declared the war a failure, and demanded peace. In Indiana a number of the adherents of that party, were strongly opposed to the further prosecution of the war, while others were lukewarm in support of the war policy of the administration. Mr. McDonald had always been in favor of the vigorous prosecution of the war, and had given his countenance and support to Governor Morton. He was now pitted against Governor Morton, who was the candidate of the Republicans. In the midst of the campaign came the exposure of the Sons of Liberty. The result of the election was in favor of the Republicans, but Mr. McDonald added to his fame as a speaker, and retained the confidence of his party and the respect of his opponents.

In 1875 he was elected to the United States Senate, having defeated Daniel W. Voorhees in the Democratic legislative caucus. Almost at once he took a commanding position in the Senate and was regarded as one of the ablest lawyers of that body. He was chosen as one of the Senate Committee to investigate the election in Louisiana in the memorable campaign of 1876. During his term in the Senate the doctrine of finance, known as the Greenback theory, took a strong hold on his party, especially in Indiana. This doctrine Mr. McDonald combatted with all his might. His attitude on this question, and his able arguments against the greenback policy, gave him additional standing with his party at large, and he was strongly talked of as an available candidate for the Presidency, and at one time it looked as if he would receive the nomination. The ticket of 1876 had been rejected by the Electoral Commission. The Democrats, unanimously, and

a vast number of Republicans, believed that the decision of the country had been wrongfully reversed. There was, consequently, a strong demand for the re-nomination of the ticket of 1876. This was prevented by the positive action of Mr. Hendricks. Indiana and New York were necessary to Democratic success and the party began to look for a candidate who could carry at least one of these States. Mr. Hendricks was anxious to head the ticket, but the party felt that to nominate him and reject Mr. Tilden would be a fatal error. It therefore turned to Mr. McDonald. Had the Indiana delegation loyally and enthusiastically taken up the fight for Mr. McDonald he could have been nominated. As it was, General Hancock was chosen.

The election in Indiana, in 1880, gave the Republicans a majority on joint ballot in the Legislature, enabling them to elect a Senator to succeed Mr. McDonald. The latter was naturally anxious to receive the caucus nomination of his party as an endorsement of his course in the Senate, but he had not always been in perfect harmony with the most radical element of his party, especially on the money question, and the vote of the Democratic members was cast for Governor Isaac P. Gray. On retiring from the Senate Mr. McDonald resumed the practice of law, opening an office in Washington. He was employed in many very important cases. One of the most notable triumphs of Mr. McDonald, as a lawyer, was in the celebrated Milligan case, in the Supreme Court of the United States. In 1864, Milligan, with others, was arrested on a charge of treason, tried before a military court and condemned to death, but the sentence was commuted by President Johnson to imprisonment for life in the Ohio penitentiary. Mr. McDonald was the attorney for the prisoners. He applied for a writ of habeas corpus, and, after a long argument, the Supreme Court gave the prisoners their liberty, holding that under the circumstances a military court was illegal.

As a speaker before a court Mr. McDonald was strong and forceful, knowing the law fully, and presenting it in the strongest light. In the Senate his speeches were always listened to with attention by his colleagues, but as a political speaker he fell below many of the other distinguished men of Indiana. He was too prolix and went too much into detail to please the average audience. In poli-

ics, as in business, he was always honest and conscientious. In real ability he ranked above many of those who were more popular with the people. His last appearance in politics was in 1887, when he became a candidate for the party nomination to the Senate to succeed General Harrison. He was defeated in the caucus by Mr. Turpie. Mr. McDonald died June 21, 1891.

DANIEL W. VOORHEES.

For forty years Daniel W. Voorhees stood among the first of Indiana orators. He served a longer time in the United States Senate than any other representative of Indiana. Daniel Wolsey Voorhees was born in Butler County, Ohio, September 26, 1827. When he was but two months old his parents removed to Indiana, settling on a farm in Fountain County. As Daniel grew to manhood he was ambitious for an education, and after attending the schools of Fountain County, he entered Asbury (now DePauw) University, in 1845, and was graduated from that institution in 1849. During his collegiate course he gave evidence of remarkable powers of oratory. Immediately after leaving college he entered a law office at Crawfordsville, having determined upon the law as his profession.

Upon his admission to the bar he chose Covington, Fountain County, as his home, and there began the practice of his profession. His first public display of his oratorical abilities was at a Fourth of July celebration at Covington. His speech on that occasion attracted the attention of the people and it was not long until he had a very large practice. In 1853 he was appointed prosecuting attorney by Governor Joseph A. Wright, and at once became the terror of evil-doers. It was as a prosecutor that he obtained that mastery of criminal law which in after years contributed to his great successes as a defender of those charged with crime.

In 1856 he was nominated for Congress by the Democrats. He was defeated, however, by James Wilson, who had been one of his law preceptors. Soon after his defeat he removed to Terre Haute, where he ever afterwards lived. In 1858 he was appointed, by President Buchanan, United States Attorney for Indiana. This appointment

extended his acquaintance over the State and he became one of the recognized leaders of his party. In 1860 he was elected to Congress. He was re-elected in 1862 and again in 1864. This time his election was contested by General Washburn, and the latter was given the seat. Mr. Voorhees was again elected in 1868, and in 1870, but was defeated in 1872. In 1875 he was a candidate for United States Senator, but J. E. McDonald was chosen. Mr. Voorhees remained out of office until his appointment to the Senate, but did not remain out of politics. His services as a campaign speaker were always in demand.

On the death of Senator Morton, in 1877, Governor Williams appointed Mr. Voorhees to fill the vacancy. At the meeting of the Legislature in 1879 he was duly elected for the unexpired term and for a full term. In 1885, and again in 1891, he was elected to succeed himself. He served until March 4, 1897, a period of nearly twenty years. He died at Washington April 10, 1897.

During his career in the Senate Mr. Voorhees did not originate any great scheme of legislation, but on nearly all occasions was the mouthpiece of his party. For several years he was chairman of the Senate Committee on Finance, thus becoming the leader of his party on the floor of the Senate, and when it was known he was to address the Senate the galleries were sure to be crowded. He was the author of the measure for the erection of the new Congressional Library building, and devoted much attention to, and took great pride in, the library.

Mr. Voorhees rose to national fame as an orator before he was first elected to Congress. Among the followers of John Brown, in his raid on Harper's Ferry, in 1859, was John E. Cook, a brother-in-law of Ashbel P. Willard, who at that time was Governor of Indiana. Governor Willard was not in sympathy with Brown, but would not let the brother of his wife be condemned without making every effort to save him. At his request Mr. Voorhees, who was at the time United States Attorney for the district of Indiana, went to Virginia to defend Cook. It was a lost cause before it came to trial, yet Mr. Voorhees took up the case and conducted it with such energy and power that he won national fame. His speech to the jury has ever since been regarded as a master-piece of eloquent pleading. E

rarely equaled it in after life, and never surpassed it. With the feeling existing at that time in Virginia and throughout the South, it was a courageous thing to take up the defense of any one connected with the raid, but Mr. Voorhees did not hesitate. It was urged upon him that it would ruin his political chances, and involve danger of personal violence, but the call of friendship was greater than his fears for himself.

During his long professional career Mr. Voorhees was connected with several of the most notable criminal trials of the times. One of his most famous and effective speeches was in defense of Mary Harris, who was charged with the killing of A. J. Burroughs, a clerk in the Treasury Department at Washington. Burroughs had promised marriage to Miss Harris, but refused to keep his promise. Miss Harris shot him in the Treasury building, in the presence of the Secretary of the Treasury. Her crime caused the most intense excitement. All the best element of Washington society exhibited sympathy for her, and Mr. Voorhees appeared in her defense. At the close of his speech she was promptly acquitted. As a sample of his eloquence the following closing paragraphs of his speech are given:

“And why, without one solitary witness to support their theory of the case, do the prosecution so hunger and thirst for the conviction of this most desolate and bereaved of sorrowing mortals? Why do they clamor fiercely against the barriers of the law and of the evidence which encompass her about, in order to drag that sick and fragile body to a miserable death? Is it a punishment they seek? She has suffered more already than the King of Terrors in his most frightful form can inflict. If she had been broken on the wheel, her limbs disjointed, and her flesh torn in piecemeal by the most fiendish skill of the executioner, her tortures would have been merciful compared to the racking which sunders into fragments the immortal mind. There is no arrow in Death’s full quiver that can give this young breast a new sensation of agony. She has sounded all the depths and shoals of misery and pain. She has lived in

“‘A whirling gulf of phantasy and flame.’

“Restore her by your verdict to the soothing influence of friends, of home. Let her go and lay her aching head on the maternal bosom of that church which for eighteen

centuries has tenderly ministered to her children in distress. Let her go and seek in the love and mercy of the Father of us all consolation for the cruelty and inhumanity of man.

“But it is claimed that a conviction must be had for the sake of example. You have been told that the people of the District of Columbia demand it. I would not bring such an argument into court, but when here I will meet it. If it be true that you desire examples for the correction of vice and the preservation of morality, I pray you not to commence with the humblest, the feeblest, and the most helpless. But I deny that the condemnation of the defendant is demanded by the people of this capital. Who are they who ask her blood at your hands? I know this people, and to some extent I think I may speak for them. I have been the recipient of their constant kindness while in their midst, and as a representative in Congress I have, in return, dealt with them in a spirit of liberality whenever I have known their wishes. You are told that the defendant came here from a distance—that the States were pouring their criminals in upon you, and therefore she must suffer as a warning to others. Such a statement is unjust to your people. You want justice, and justice alone, administered upon all; and who believes that this girl’s life is required as an offering upon the altar of public justice? I repel this imputation upon the intelligence and humanity of this kind and hospitable district. When you are discharged and return to your homes, as you will in a few hours, ask those whom you meet there whether they desired you to cut the feeble thread of this girl’s life by your ballot. I will abide by their answer. To no one has she appeared as a criminal, save to those who conduct and inspire the prosecution. To all others in your midst she has presented a sad spectacle of calamity and misery. Her purity, her gentleness, her guileless truth, shining out in every word and act, have won to her side in this dark hour your oldest, and your best and most honored citizens. Her prison abode has been brightened by the presence of the noblest and purest of her own sex, and delicate flowers from the loftiest station in the world have mingled their odors with the breath of her captivity. Men venerable in their years, and strong in their convictions of the principles of immutable right, have been

drawn to her assistance by an instinctive obedience to the voice of God, commanding them to succor the weak, lift up the fallen and alleviate the distress of innocence.

"And now for Mary Harris, and in the name of Him who showers His blessings on the merciful, who spoke the parable of the Samaritan, who gave the promise to those who feed and clothe the stranger in their gates, and who visit the sick and them that are in prison, I thank the people of the capital. Add one more obligation for her to remember until the grave opens to hide her from the world. It is in your hands to grant. The law in its grave majesty approves the act. The evidence with an unbroken voice demands it. Your own hearts press forward to the discharge of a most gracious duty. The hour is almost at hand for its performance. Unlock the door of her prison, and bid her bathe her throbbing brow once more in the healing air of liberty. Let your verdict be the champion of law, of morality, of science. Let it vindicate civilization, and humanity, justice and mercy.

"Appealing to the Searcher of all hearts, to that Omnipresent eye which beholds every secret thought, for the integrity of my motives in the conduct of this cause, and for the sincerity of my belief in the principles which I have announced, I now, with unwavering confidence in the triumph of innocence, surrender all into your hands."

Mr. Voorhees was never engaged in many great civil suits, but his remarkable powers in that direction were illustrated in the celebrated case of Kilbourne vs. Thompson. Kilbourne had refused to answer certain questions before a committee of Congress. The House of Representatives ordered his arrest. Thompson was the Sergeant-at-Arms, and made the arrest. Kilbourne was released on a writ of habeas corpus, Mr. Voorhees being his attorney. Kilbourne then sued Thompson, the Speaker of the House and the members of the committee, asking \$150,000 damages. Mr. Voorhees made the principal address for the plaintiff, and the jury awarded Kilbourne \$100,000 damages. The verdict was set aside by the court, the Judge saying that the jury had been so wrought upon by the eloquence of Mr. Voorhees that it had been led to give excessive damages. Mr. Voorhees by no means confined himself to political and legal addresses, but made speeches on

many notable public occasions. His orations upon "Thomas Jefferson" and "The Holy Sepulcher" were masterpieces.

DAVID TURPIE.

David Turpie is a native of Ohio. None of his biographers give the date of his birth, and he has always been very reticent in speaking of his early years. On first coming to Indiana his life was that of a farmer boy, in Carroll County. Arriving at an age to choose his own path in life he determined to become a lawyer, and entered the office of the late Senator Daniel D. Pratt, at Logansport. In 1849 he was admitted to practice, and chose Monticello for his future home. He gave early evidence of more than ordinary ability as a lawyer, and in 1854 was appointed Judge of the Common Pleas Court by Governor Wright. Two years later he was appointed Judge of the Circuit Court, but a position on the bench did not suit him, and he soon resigned.

Before his appointment as Judge of the Common Pleas Court he had served one term in the State Legislature, and in 1858 was again elected. At the ensuing session he became one of the prominent leaders of the Democratic side of the House. He won fame as one of the ablest debaters in the House, and in 1860 was chosen by his party as its candidate for Lieutenant Governor, his opponent being Oliver P. Morton. The Democratic ticket was defeated, but Mr. Turpie had added to his fame as a political speaker. He made three races for Congress, in 1862, 1864 and 1866, against Schuyler Colfax, but was defeated each time.

In 1863 the Legislature was called upon to elect a Senator to fill the unexpired term of Jesse D. Bright, who had been expelled. Mr. Bright made strenuous efforts to be elected for the few remaining weeks, but Mr. Turpie was chosen. He took his seat immediately after his election, and although he had only about forty days to serve, he made a speech that caused a wide sensation. He had been a leader in Indiana of those who most strongly opposed some of the civil war measures of the administration and his speech in the Senate was a scathing denunciation of its war policy, and especially of the arrests of civilians by military authority.

In 1868 Mr. Turpie removed to Logansport and continued the practice of his profession, taking rank among the ablest lawyers in the State. In 1878 he made Indianapolis his home and two years later was elected once more to the Legislature. He was chosen Speaker of the House, and presided with such fairness and impartiality that he won the good will of those who opposed him politically. In 1884 he sought the Democratic nomination for Governor, but was defeated by Isaac P. Gray. On the accession of Mr. Cleveland to the Presidency Mr. Turpie was appointed United States Attorney for the district of Indiana, and served in that capacity until he was elected to the Senate in 1887.

Mr. Turpie possesses a profound knowledge of the law, and a memory that is marvelous. He is a linguist, reading and speaking several languages. He has been specially a student of history, and his knowledge in that line enabled him to greatly strengthen his arguments in the Senate. In speaking his voice is rather unpleasant, but he always commanded the closest attention from his colleagues. He has always been a man of positive convictions, and never shrank from expressing his opinions upon any public topic which engaged his attention. He is a master of invective and sarcasm. Perhaps his greatest efforts in the Senate were his speeches in opposition to the Nicaragua canal bills. On that subject he delivered several very powerful speeches. He served in the Senate two terms, and was regarded as one of the strongest lawyers and ablest debaters in that body.

CALEB B. SMITH.

Besides those specifically mentioned Indiana has had a number of citizens who have held high places under the Government, winning honor and fame by their talents and their services. The first Indianian to hold a place in the cabinet at Washington was Caleb B. Smith. He was a native of Boston, Massachusetts, and was born April 16, 1808. His father having removed to Ohio, Caleb was educated at Miami University, and after studying law removed to Connersville, Indiana. He was a lawyer of unquestioned ability and commanded a large practice. In 1832 he established a newspaper at Connersville, and for some years acted as its editor.

Entering politics he was elected to the Legislature in 1833, and again in 1836, when he was made Speaker of the House of Representatives. In 1843 he was elected to Congress, serving until 1849. He was a member of the Commission to settle the Mexican claims, arising under the treaty of peace with that country. At the conclusion of the labors of the Commission Mr. Smith became largely interested in railroad building, but in 1858 removed to Indianapolis and devoted himself to the practice of his profession. He was one of the most fascinating stump speakers the State has produced. In 1861 President Lincoln appointed him Secretary of the Interior, and he served until December, 1862, when he was appointed Judge of the United States Court for the District of Indiana. He died January 7, 1864.

JOHN P. USHER.

Mr. Smith was succeeded in the office of Secretary of the Interior by John P. Usher, of Terre Haute. Mr. Usher was a large man, physically and mentally, and a lawyer of distinguished ability. He served until May, 1865, when he resigned to become the general counsel of the Union Pacific Railroad, in which capacity he acted until his death, nearly twenty years later.

JAMES N. TYNER.

James N. Tyner, Assistant Postmaster General, and Postmaster General under President Grant, was born in Brookville. Having studied law he removed to Peru, Miami County. In 1869 he was elected to Congress, and served until 1875. He was appointed First Assistant Postmaster General, and in 1876 was placed at the head of that department, serving until Mr. Hayes became President. During the administration of Mr. Hayes he served again as First Assistant Postmaster General.

JOHN W. FOSTER.

John W. Foster, one of the most accomplished diplomats the country has produced, was born in Vanderburgh

County. He has served as Minister to Mexico, Minister to Spain, Minister to Russia, Assistant Secretary of State, and Secretary of State. Several times he has been chosen to negotiate special treaties with other countries, and was a member of the Bering Sea Commission. He was selected by China to represent that country in its negotiation of peace with Japan. He is the author of a very valuable work on the diplomatic relations of the United States, and is regarded as an authority on international law.

W. H. H. MILLER.

W. H. H. Miller, of Indianapolis, served as Attorney General during the administration of President Benjamin Harrison. Mr. Miller is a native of New York, but has lived in Indiana during all his manhood life, holding a position among the ablest lawyers of the State.

RICHARD W. THOMPSON.

Perhaps the two most distinguished Indianians who have held cabinet positions were Colonel Richard W. Thompson and Judge Walter Q. Gresham. Mr. Thompson was born in Virginia, but as a young man left that State to seek a home in the West. In Louisville, Kentucky, he met a citizen of Indiana who induced him to come to this State, where he began his career as a school teacher at Bedford, Lawrence County. He varied his labors by clerking in a store, and then began the active study of law. His first case gave him a reputation as an orator of remarkable powers, and for half a century he held his place at the head of Indiana orators, and became known as the "Old Man Eloquent." In politics he was originally a Whig, but on the birth of the Republican party, cast in his allegiance with it. He was twice elected to Congress, the first time in 1843 and the last in 1847. For years he was the "platform writer" for his party, and several times represented it in National Conventions, the last time in 1896. When Mr. Hayes became President he selected Mr. Thompson as his Secretary of the Navy. He resigned that office in January, 1881, to become the American representative of the

Panama Canal Company. He died at Terre Haute in 1901 at the age of ninety-two.

WALTER Q. GRESHAM.

Walter Q. Gresham was born in Harrison County. There he lived during his boyhood a struggling life of poverty. He was ambitious and possessed a personal magnetism which made him many friends. By the assistance of his friends he obtained an education and studied law. When the civil war came it found him an ardent friend of the Union, and early in 1861 he offered his services. He was made Lieutenant Colonel of the Thirty-eighth Regiment, but was soon promoted to the Colonelcy of the Fifty-third. In August, 1863, he was commissioned Brigadier General. In the battle of Atlanta he was severely wounded, while in command of a division. In August, 1865, he was breveted a Major General and served until April, 1866. In 1869 he was appointed by President Grant United States Judge for the District of Indiana. On the 1st of April, 1883, he was tendered the position of Postmaster General by President Arthur. After some hesitation he accepted this place, but in September, 1874, he was transferred to the Treasury Department. A month later he was appointed Circuit Judge for the circuit composed of Indiana, Illinois and Michigan.

In 1888 he became a candidate for the Presidential nomination before the Republican convention at Chicago. He led on the first ballot, but was finally defeated. In 1892 he was prominently spoken of as a candidate before the Democratic convention. When Mr. Cleveland began his second term he appointed Mr. Gresham Secretary of State. He held that position until his death in June, 1895. Judge Gresham was a man of large and varied talent, an able judge, a patriotic and upright citizen, and had a host of enthusiastic admirers all over the country.

CHAPTER XXVI.

LITERATURE, SCIENCE AND ART.

It is hard to determine who was the first citizen of Indiana to publish in book form the creations of his pen, but William Maclure, Thomas Say and Francis Neef, all of New Harmony, were very early in the field with their publications. They wrote altogether upon scientific or educational topics, and their writings are still regarded as authority on the subjects to which they were devoted. Indiana has produced a number of citizens who have written much on scientific questions for magazines and newspapers, besides what has been gathered into book form. It will not be possible in these pages to even name all those who have written and published, for it is not designed to make an Indiana bibliography. There are a number whose names stand high in the literary world who were born in Indiana, but whose fame has come to them while citizens of other States. Of these the two most notable are Joaquin Miller, the poet of the Sierras, and John Hay, the poet, and joint author of the *Life of Abraham Lincoln*.

The earliest Indiana writers turned to the muses for their inspiration, and more than half a century ago some of them had won more than a local fame. Their writings are now nearly all out of print, and their names almost forgotten. Mrs. Sarah T. Bolton, however, who was one of the earliest of the Indiana poets, won a fame that passed beyond the boundaries of the State, and her writings still hold a place in the libraries. Edward Eggleston was one of the first to win recognition as a writer of fiction. His works were much more popular in the East than in Indi-

ana, where the scenes of some of his stories are laid. His writings are believed by many to have had a damaging effect on the reputation of the State. His eastern readers have taken his characters to be types of the people of Indiana, and thus a very erroneous opinion of their intelligence and culture has grown up. His characters are no more representative of Indiana than they are of any other State in the Union.

Robert Dale Owen, Richard W. Thompson, Will Cumback, William H. English, W. P. Fishback, Maurice Thompson, Charles Major, Booth Tarkington, and Meredith Nicholson gained enviable distinction in the field of literature. Rosa Hardwick Thorpe, author of that most touching poem, "The Curfew Shall Not Ring Tonight," was a native of Indiana. Indiana has furnished a number of distinguished newspaper writers and some of them have entered the field of literature.

JOHN BROWN DILLON.

Indiana's first historian was John Brown Dillon. He it was who first entered the field of research, and from the old, musty files of the Canadian and Colonial archives dug out the story of the early explorations of the French trappers and missionaries, and the attempts to settle this part of the Ohio Valley. Mr. Dillon was born in Brooke County, West Virginia, not far from Steubenville, Ohio. He gathered what education he could from the country schools of those days, which was not very much, and at an early age apprenticed himself to learn the printing trade. From Charlestown, West Virginia, he soon migrated to Cincinnati. He was of a studious nature, and gave all his spare moments to the acquisition of knowledge upon a wide range of subjects. Especially was his mind attracted toward the legends and stories of the early settlers, and as a youth he gathered up many which he afterwards put in print. He also cultivated the muses, and was a poet of a high order. Many of his poetical effusions were printed in the Gazette and other papers of Cincinnati. Some of them were of extraordinary merit for their delicate imagery.

From Cincinnati Mr. Dillon removed to Logansport, where he entered upon the practice of the law. But his

mind was too full of historical themes, and his love for literature was too great to leave him satisfied with the details of his profession. In 1842 he removed to Indianapolis, and the next year his "Historical Notes" were published. About that time he began the preparation of his History of Indiana, which was published some years later. From 1845 to 1850 he served as State Librarian. In 1851 he became Assistant Secretary of State, and was for years the Secretary of the Indiana Agricultural Society. In 1861 he was made Custodian of the Library of the Interior Department, at Washington, which position he held until 1870. Two or three years later he returned to Indianapolis, where he died January 21, 1879.

As a historian he was painstaking and laborious. The truth was what he sought at all times. He took nothing for granted, but investigated everything for himself. His mind was a rich storehouse of facts connected with the earliest history of the country. His most pretentious work, and the one that ought to bring him lasting fame, is his "Oddities of Colonial Legislation and Condensed America," printed in 1879, after his death. It is full of the most valuable information touching the early days of the colonies, and is especially valuable as a book of ready reference as to the important events in the history of the country.

WILLIAM WESLEY WOOLLEN.

Among the historical writers of Indiana William Wesley Woollen takes high rank. He was born in Dorchester County, Maryland, June 21, 1828. In 1844, when but sixteen years of age, he started out for himself, the "great West" being his destination. He landed at Madison in December with but one dollar in his pocket. He soon found employment as a school teacher, and in due time entered himself as a student at Hanover College. On leaving college he secured employment in one of the offices of the County, utilizing his spare time in the study of law. He served in subordinate capacities for several years in the County offices until he was finally appointed Auditor to fill a vacancy, and then was elected Treasurer. In 1857 he engaged in banking, a pursuit he followed at intervals for many years. He had a wide acquaintance with the promi-

nent men of the State and in 1883 published a volume of biographical and historical sketches of early Indiana, a work that has maintained a deserved popularity. Mr. Woollen was always a student of Indiana history, and wrote much on that subject, in addition to the volume mentioned. He died at Indianapolis September 24, 1902.

JACOB PIATT DUNN.

By the time Mr. Dunn had reached the age of thirty he had won reputation as an historical writer. The turning of his mind to that class of writing may almost be termed an accident, but the country at large, and Indiana especially, are the gainers from it. Mr. Dunn is a native of Indiana and was born in Lawrenceburg, April 12, 1855. He was educated in the public schools of Indianapolis and at Earlham College, graduating from that institution. After his graduation Earlham bestowed upon him the degree of M. A. He also took a course in the Law Department of Ann Arbor. After leaving that institution he went to Colorado, and there drifted into newspaper work. While in the West he made a study of the Indians and of Indian character and gathered a mass of data on these subjects, but without thought of utilizing this material for writing history.

Returning to Indiana in 1887, he came across a recent publication on pioneer life, and in a conversation with the author asked him why he did not write a history of the more recent contests with the red men. The reply was that the authentic material could not be had. Mr. Dunn resumed investigation of the matter, and was soon surprised at the wealth of material which was accessible. By this time he had become thoroughly in love with the subject and pursued it with avidity.

He prepared a work which he submitted to the Harpers, of New York, and it was promptly accepted and published under the title, "Massacres of the Mountains, a History of the Indian Wars of the Far West." The book at once attracted attention and was most favorably received by the critics and the general public, and received the endorsement of the Government. This work gave him a well deserved place among historical writers. At that time he had not thought of writing a history of Indiana, but while pur-

suing his studies of Indian warfare he came across some allusions to the petitions on the subject of slavery sent to Congress from Indiana, in the early days of its territorial existence. This opened up a new field, and as he had opportunity he gathered all he could on that subject. At that time Houghton, Mifflin & Co. were engaged in publishing their "American Commonwealth" series. Mr. Dunn, in a letter to that firm, mentioned the fact that the effort to establish slavery in Indiana and its failure was a central link upon which the history of the State hinged. It was suggested that he should prepare a History of Indiana, making that the principal feature. He made his preparations thoroughly and systematically, making a close study of all the official records and of all other matter bearing on the subject. The result was a work that confirmed Mr. Dunn's reputation as a writer of history, and won more favorable comments than any of the other volumes of the "American Commonwealth" series.

Since completing this last volume Mr. Dunn has been the leading member of the editorial staff of the Indianapolis Sentinel, and is ranked as one of the ablest political writers of the State. He has also devoted much time to writing on economic subjects, and has contributed several pamphlets on various topics connected with the science of government, which have attracted wide attention. "The New Tax Law of Indiana, and the Science of Taxation," issued in 1892, and "The World's Silver Question," issued in 1894, have been largely circulated and quoted. In 1889 he prepared a "Manual of the Ballot Law of Indiana," which was published by authority of the Legislature. In 1893 the World's Fair Commissioners requested him to prepare a Monograph on the Libraries of Indiana, which he did.

Indiana is still further indebted to him. It was largely through his efforts that the Indiana Historical Society was revived, and the annual publication of a volume of valuable historical papers was begun. For the second volume Mr. Dunn prepared two of the papers, one containing documents relating to the French settlements on the Wabash, and the other containing the petitions and other papers on the slavery question in Indiana. Most of the documents presented in this second paper had never previously been published. Mr. Dunn has done much to develop and en-

courage a study of Indiana history, and has fairly won the place he holds among Indiana writers.

JOHN CLARK RIDPATH.

Few names are better known today to the reading public of America than that of John Clark Ridpath. He devoted his life to historical and scientific research. He was born in 1841, in Putnam County, Indiana, in a log cabin, on a little farm cultivated by his father. At that time there was not a wagon road within three miles of his father's cabin. As soon as he was old enough to help in the work of the farm his labors began. Opportunities for acquiring an education were very limited. The only school house in the neighborhood was a log building in the forest, far from any road, and was only reached by paths through the forest. It had no glass in the windows, and the seats and desks were of the rudest pattern. In such a school John Clark Ridpath began his search after knowledge, which he absorbed almost by intuition, and by the time he was eleven years old had outgrown the school. For the next four or five years he read what books he could obtain. At the age of nineteen he entered Asbury (now De-Pauw) University, and crowded a six years' course into four years. As soon as he was graduated he entered upon a course of teaching, first finding a place in the Academy at Thorntown, where he served two years. He was then elected principal of the institution. In 1866 he became superintendent of the schools at Lawrenceburg. His reputation as an educator grew continually, and in 1869 Asbury University called him to the chair of English Literature. He remained with the University as one of the faculty until 1885.

In his childhood days his reading had turned his mind to historical subjects, and as he grew in years this bent of his mind increased. In 1874-5 he published his first book, an "Academic History of the United States," intended as a text book for colleges and high schools. It met with remarkable success. It was afterwards abridged into a "Grammar School History," which is yet the text book in many parts of the country. His next work was an "Inductive Grammar of the English Language." In 1876 he gave to

the public his "Popular History of the United States." In 1885 he published his "Cyclopedia of Universal History," in four large volumes. This was followed by the "Great Races of Mankind." These works achieved great popularity and had, and still have, an immense sale. Mr. Ridpath also wrote biographies of James G. Blaine, James A. Garfield and William E. Gladstone, and was one of the editors of the "People's Cyclopedia." He died in 1900.

BENJAMIN S. PARKER.

Benjamin S. Parker is a native of Indiana. He was born in a "cabin in the clearing," in Henry County, February 10, 1833. His parents were people of much intelligence and great lovers of books, so that his education literally began in his infancy in the cabin home. His school opportunities were limited to such as were offered by the Friends' School, known as "Rich Square School," which were, however, remarkably good for those days. In early manhood he became a teacher, and succeeded well. Afterwards he engaged in newspaper work and became one of the best known newspaper men in the State. In 1882 he was appointed, by President Arthur, United States Consul at Sherbrooke, Canada, and served until Mr. Cleveland became President. So favorably had he impressed himself upon the business men of that section of Canada that they appealed to President Cleveland to retain him. In 1886 he was elected Clerk of the Circuit Court of Henry County, and served four years.

He began writing when quite young, and like all young writers published much in the local papers, which, however, gave little promise of the better work he did in his maturity. Aside from a small volume which was printed for home circulation, in 1871, his published books have been "The Cabin in the Clearing, and Other Poems," in 1887, "Hoosier Bards," in 1891, and "The Rhymes of Our Neighborhood," in 1895. All these volumes have been well received by the critics and the public.

His most popular poem, but by no means his best, is "The Cabin in the Clearing," from which one of his volumes takes its name. His best work is to be found in such poems as "The Hoosier Bards," "Tis Morning and the

Days are Long," "The Damascus Road," "Carco Bay," and "Endymion." In dialect he has written but little, and his greatest success in that line is "The Old Camp Meeting," in African patois. "'Tis Morning and the Days are Long," and "The Little Tunker Bonnet," are fairly representative of his poetry, in the serious and lighter veins. His prose work is equal to his poetry, but has not attracted so much attention, as no collection of it has been made.

MRS. SARAH T. BOLTON.

Long among the most honored women of Indiana stood Sarah T. Bolton, and to this day her name is a household word. She was not only honored in Indiana, but in other States and other lands. She was born at Newport, Kentucky, December 18, 1807. When she was still a child her parents concluded to move to the wilds of Indiana. There were then no roads into the wilderness where they were going, and all their earthly possessions were carried on pack horses. Their new home was a little cabin standing in a dense forest full of Indians and wild beasts. It was under the shade of those giant trees that she learned to weave her poetic strains. The family of the new settler was growing up around him, and he longed for the means of giving them an education. This could not be obtained in the wilderness where they lived, and he at last determined to sell the farm he had just carved out of the forest, and move to Madison, the most thriving town in the new State. Sarah was very quick to learn, and although when her school days began she was very far behind others of her age, it was not long until she had passed them in the acquisition of knowledge. There she began to write verses for the county paper, and finally some for the papers in Cincinnati. Her writings attracted the attention of Nathaniel Bolton, who was the first editor in Indianapolis. He courted the young poetess, and they were married, taking their bridal journey to Indianapolis on horseback. Her husband purchased the farm on which the Central Hospital for the Insane now stands, and they began the life of a farmer. Mrs. Bolton continued to write for the papers, and her husband went back to the work of an editor in after years. From various causes their farming was not successful, but while on the farm their home was an ideal

one, and within its walls were often gathered the men who made Indiana famous in its earlier years.

In 1851 Mr. Bolton was appointed United States Consul at Geneva, Switzerland. His wife accompanied him abroad and remained with him while his official life lasted. They traveled extensively in Europe, and many of her finest poems were written there. The best known poem of Mrs. Bolton is "Paddle Your Own Canoe." That and "Away to the Battle of Life" are good examples of her style.

JAMES WHITCOMB RILEY.

In the then insignificant village of Greenfield, in Hancock County, in 1854, was born one who has since filled the United States with his fame, and has become almost as well known and well loved across the ocean as in his own State. What education James Whitcomb Riley obtained was in the schools of his native village, and that was not a great deal; not that the schools were not good, but because he was of that bent of mind and disposition that did not turn to the school house. It is an old saying that "Poets are born, not made." This is pre-eminently the case with Mr. Riley. His writings come from the genius born in him, and not from any inspiration or help derived from schools. He was not a "bad boy," in the usual acceptation of that term, but was a restless one. In youth he showed an intense desire to see more of the world than was found in his native village. He had given no evidence of the genius which was to make him famous, but if his mind had shown any bent at all, it was toward music, for he loved the violin.

It was while roaming over the country, playing the violin for a show, writing signs for village storekeepers, and doing other things to earn a living, that he got the education which enabled him to write his wonderful stories in prose and poem. Standing on the street corners of the cities, silent himself, he listened to the talk of the newsboys and bootblacks; heard their dialect, caught the quaint humor, the deep pathos, the strange logic, coming from such infantile lips, and while listening he studied their characters, and soon grasped the motives which animated

them; he talked with the farmer lads, as he wended his way along the highways; he studied the trees, the flowers, the weeds, the old homes, even the cattle and the lumbering old wagons. He knew not then, nor even dreamed what all this would eventually bring forth, but in those days of wandering he was filling a store house from which in his manhood days he was to bring forth inexhaustible treasures to charm, fascinate and please the world. His first writings were hidden away in the "Poet's Corner" of the village paper, and attracted only local attention, but after a while they began to appear in papers of more pretensions, and it slowly dawned upon the public that a new poet had arisen. Then he jumped into fame almost at a bound. His first volume was published in 1883, and since then one has followed almost yearly, and now the poems of Riley are found in almost every home, and those who read them laugh and cry in turn.

What is there in his writings which charm all who read? Who can explain it? It is not the dialect, for of that one would tire after a while. Dialect soon palls on the taste. Such a stream of it as he has given the world, quaint as it is, would have nauseated the public long before this if there were not a rare quality in his verse. There is but one way of explaining his popularity. There is a human heart in his writings, a nature, found only in Burns, beside. When he writes of the trees, one sees them; when he talks of the old home, one sees the home, with its gable, its rambling attic, its roomy kitchen. It is not writing alone, it is painting. And in it all there is a warm, beating heart. His humor is so rich and so tender that it is of itself almost pathos, while his pathos is so deep, comes so naturally from the heart, that it touches all other hearts.

He is of the common people; he writes about the common people; he enters into their feelings; sympathizes with them, sorrows with them, rejoices with them, in their own way. No other American poet has attained equal popularity, and it is by no means confined to the "common people," for he has touched the heart and fascinated the man of letters in his library, the banker in his office, the millionaire in his palace. He has not written as much prose as poetry, but his prose is fully equal to his verse in every element,



JOHN BROWN DILLON.



JOHN CLARK RIDPATH.



GEN. LEW WALLACE.



JAMES WHITCOMB RILEY.



JACOB PIATT DUNN.



and in pathos and humor even surpasses it. Magazines, newspapers, and many readers make a great mistake in commenting on his writings. They constantly speak of them as being in "Hoosier dialect." They are no more in "Hoosier dialect" than in Boston dialect. Go into the streets of Boston, and listen to the bootblacks and the newsboys, or go into the country districts in any State in the Union, and talk with the uneducated among the people, and you will hear the same dialect. The dialect he uses is something broader than the boundary line of one State. It is hard to tell which of his poems is the most popular, but perhaps the one oftenest quoted is "When the Frost is on the Punkin."

LEWIS WALLACE.

At the head of contemporary American novelists stands Lewis Wallace, of Indiana. He is not only distinguished as a writer of fiction, but he is a poet of note, an artist, and has won honors on the battle field and in the ranks of diplomacy. He was born at Brookville, Franklin County, April 10, 1827. He received his education in the common schools of that County, and of Indianapolis, where he came with his father, who served one term as Governor of the State. When war was declared against Mexico he was a law student, but he left his books for a sword and became First Lieutenant of Company H, First Indiana Regiment. He served with gallantry during the war, and upon his return from Mexico he located at Crawfordsville, in the practice of his profession. He served four years as a member of the State Senate. When Governor Morton saw the war cloud gathering in 1861, he appointed Mr. Wallace Adjutant General of the State, and when the first regiments were organized, commissioned him as Colonel of the Eleventh Indiana Infantry. With his regiment he went to Maryland. At the close of its term of enlistment, three months, the regiment returned to Indianapolis, and was recruited for three years. September 3, 1861, Colonel Wallace became a Brigadier General, and commanded a division at the capture of Fort Donelson, where it was the steady fighting of his division that saved the army from disaster, on the day the Confederates tried to break through Grant's lines. For his gallantry on that occasion

he was made a Major General of Volunteers. He led his division during the second day's battle at Shiloh. When a Court of Inquiry was ordered on the campaign of General Buell, in Kentucky, he was made President of the Court. In 1863, when Bragg and Kirby Smith invaded Kentucky and threatened Cincinnati, he was placed in command at that place, and so strongly fortified the country on the Kentucky side of the river that the Confederates retired without making an attack. He was afterwards given command of the Middle Department, with headquarters at Baltimore. He was also made commander of the Eighth Corps.

He was in command at Baltimore when Early invaded Maryland, in his attempt on Washington. Wallace only had a few thousand troops, but with them he advanced and met the Confederates at Monocacy, and there held the enemy at bay for several hours. In fact, the resistance of the Union troops was so strong that the advance of the Confederates was delayed thirty hours. This gave General Grant time to reinforce Washington, the advance of the reinforcements debarking from the steamers as that of Early was attacking one of the outlying forts. This action of General Wallace won the warmest commendation from General Grant, but for it he was removed by Halleck. When General Grant heard of the removal, he promptly reinstated Wallace. Not long after this General Wallace was sent on a secret diplomatic mission to the Liberals of Mexico. Maximilian was then in power in that country, but the Mexican Republicans were maintaining a warfare against him. Wallace was instructed to place himself in communication with the leaders of the insurgents and promise them aid. This mission was known to but three persons—Grant, Wallace and President Lincoln. General Wallace acquitted himself on this mission with such skill as to again win commendation from General Grant. On his return from Mexico he was again put in command at Baltimore. When the assassins of President Lincoln were placed on trial before a military tribunal, General Wallace was made the second member of the court. He afterwards painted a large picture of one of the scenes of the conspiracy, depicted by the witnesses. He was President of the

Court which tried Wirz, who had been in command of the Confederate prison at Andersonville.

General Wallace was mustered out of the service in 1865, and returned to Crawfordsville. From 1878 to 1881 he was Governor of New Mexico, and in 1881 was appointed Minister to Turkey. His first literary work was "The Fair God," published in 1873. It is a story of Mexico at the time of its conquest by Cortez. His most famous work is "Ben Hur, or a Story of The Christ," published in 1880. In 1888 was published "The Boyhood of Christ," and in 1893 "The Prince of India."

MAURICE THOMPSON.

Franklin County has given to Indiana a number of men who have won fame in some of the various walks of life, and among those men Maurice Thompson takes high rank. James Maurice Thompson was born in Fairfield, a little village not far from Brookville, September 9, 1844. His father was a Baptist minister of considerable distinction, and finally moved to Georgia, where he became a planter. There Maurice grew to manhood. In 1862 he joined the Confederate army and served for some time.

When peace came there was not much opportunity for young men in the South and Maurice returned to Indiana, locating in Crawfordsville, where he studied law. He gave much of his time, however, to literature. After serving one term in the State Legislature he was appointed State Geologist in 1885. His first published work was "Hoosier Mosaics," an admirable little volume of Indiana stories. In 1882 he published two stories, "A Tallahassee Girl," and "His Second Campaign," both stories of the South. These were followed by "Love's Extremes," in 1885, "A Banker of Bankerville," in 1886, "A Fortnight of Folly," 1888, and "Stories of the Cherokee Hills," in 1889. His most popular story, however, was "Alice of Old Vincennes," published in 1900. It achieved instantaneous popularity, and hundreds of thousands of copies were sold.

Mr. Thompson was always pleasing in his writings, and his poetry, although less known, was better than his prose. In descriptions of natural scenery he was peculiarly felicitous, and two or three of the scenes in "Alice of Old Vin-

cennes" are powerfully drawn. Mr. Thompson died at Crawfordsville, January 15, 1901.

EARLY INDIANA SAVANTS.

It could hardly be expected that a State carved from the wilderness would in less than three-quarters of a century produce many men of great learning or scientific attainments. We naturally turn to the older States of the East when looking for such products. Massachusetts and Virginia, with their seats of learning dating back for more than two centuries, might be expected to have a long roll of those who have distinguished themselves in the world of learning and science. Around these old centers such men are wont to gather. In the wilderness of Indiana there was nothing to attract them—they could find but little scope for their powers. Then, too, it was not until after the war of the rebellion and the honors won therein by Indiana soldiers that the State began its great upward march. Its greatest progress has been during the last third of a century, yet notwithstanding all these drawbacks Indiana can lay claim to many great names in science, literature and art.

The proud position of Indiana in science dates back to the New Harmony days; to the days, nearly a century gone, when thoughtful men believed a new social era was about to dawn; when the belief was rife that competition was past; that land in cities could no longer rise in value and that the community system must prevail; to the days when wise men believed that because of their superabundance, riches would soon cease to be the chief aim of man's endeavor, and that rational living would be the rule. It was in those days that William Maclure, of Philadelphia, founded the New Harmony settlement which soon became the Mecca of scientists; a settlement which indeed failed to realize the hopes of its founder, yet which served to awaken that scientific spirit which has never died out in Indiana. Because of the cruel stress and strain of the war period, and the wonderful material development of the subsequent years, the achievements, and even the names of the scientific workers of the State, have been lost sight of, and yet never in the history of Indiana has there been a

time since the New Harmony days when it could not boast a scientist whose fame was as broad as the civilized world. William Maclure, the founder of the colony, was a noted geologist, who, in addition to the general oversight of the settlement and the editing of "The Disseminator of Useful Knowledge," found time to make large collections in his chosen field. A part of these collections were in the famous Owen Museum, purchased by Indiana University, which was unfortunately destroyed by fire in 1883.

Concerning the shells of the Wabash, Thomas Say wrote voluminously and with authority. When he entered the New Harmony settlement he was already famous as a naturalist and traveler. He wrote of insects as well as of shells, and whatever he touched bore the imprint of a master workman. When he died it was said that "he had done more to make known the zoology of this country than any other man."

Charles Alexander Le Sueur, a native of France, was one of the most noted of these pioneer scientists. Before he quit his native land his fame had become widespread. He had been around the world as a naturalist on a famous expedition, and was the friend of Cuvier. His special studies were of the turtles and fish. He was the first to study the fish fauna of the great lakes, and to investigate the great family of fishes known as buffaloes and suckers. He made immense collections of the animals of the Wabash Valley, which he sent to Cuvier and which still remain in the museum in Paris.

Another geologist of note was Dr. Gerard Troost, whose splendid collection of minerals became the possession of a society in Louisville. Dr. Troost, after leaving the community, became the State Geologist of Tennessee.

Rafinesque, the eccentric, the "mad scientist," so called, yet one whose work in these later days has been proved to be of true worth, was for a time at the community. There was scarcely a department of science in which Rafinesque did not work, and while much of his work is undoubtedly bad, very much is of a high order.

Then there were the two Owens, David Dale and Richard, of similar tastes and almost equal fame. David Dale Owen spent most of his life as a geologist in the public service. In 1837 he was State Geologist in Indiana. After

this he was in charge of government work in Wisconsin and Iowa, then five years served as United States Geologist in field work beyond the Mississippi. Then successively he had charge of the State surveys in Kentucky, Arkansas and Indiana. Because of the high standard of his work he has profoundly impressed the history of American geology, and has left a great name. Richard Owen spent the greater part of his life as a teacher, being for many years professor of geology in Indiana University. He also did much field work as the assistant of his brother, and while professor at the University. His publications are extremely numerous, and have, of course, a variant value, but, through his contact with the young, it is doubtful if any one has done more to disseminate the love of true science in Indiana than Richard Owen.

DANIEL KIRKWOOD.

Great as a man, as a teacher, as a mathematician, as an astronomer, the name of Kirkwood is revered not merely by the hundreds who came directly under his influence, but by the whole State, which he honored by faithful service and loyal citizenship.

Daniel Kirkwood easily takes first place among Indiana scientists. He was of Scotch-Irish ancestry, and was born in Hartford County, Maryland, September 27, 1814. His father was a farmer, but young Kirkwood did not take kindly to that life, and at an early age entered the York County Academy at York, Pennsylvania. He became an instructor in mathematics at this academy, and while there trained several pupils who afterward gained fame in the scientific world, among them Samuel B. Franklin, so long the distinguished superintendent of the observatory at Washington.

Mr. Kirkwood devoted his life to teaching, and filled several important positions in Eastern educational institutions before he came to Indiana. As early as 1849 he had made himself a distinctive place among scientists by the publication of his analogy between the periods of the rotations of the primary planets. He also announced the theory that there were gaps in the asteroid zone. At that

time this theory could not be verified, as only about fifty asteroids had been discovered, but when the number of known asteroids had become great enough to determine the truth or error of the theory, it was found that Professor Kirkwood was right. He was also the first to show that the divisions of Saturn's rings are due to the same causes which produced the gaps in the asteroid zone.

In 1856 Mr. Kirkwood accepted the chair of mathematics in the Indiana University, and, with the exception of the years 1866 and 1867, held that chair until advancing age caused him to resign in 1886. As a mathematician and as an astronomer his fame reached all countries. As a teacher he had the happy faculty of inspiring his students with an enthusiasm that brought forth their highest powers. Of him, one who knew him well, once said: "The student was always better, every way, from having known Professor Kirkwood."

He wrote much for the public on scientific matters. During his life he contributed more than two hundred papers to various scientific magazines, and for several years wrote the astronomical articles for Appleton's "Annual Encyclopaedia." His style was characterized by simplicity and directness.

COX, COLLETT AND HOVEY.

Among the men who deserve well of Indiana is E. T. Cox, for so long a time State Geologist. More, perhaps, than any other man, Prof. Cox brought Indiana to commercial importance by his exploitation of its coals and other economic resources. His investigation of the values of the various coals of the State for different uses in manufactures was both scientific and complete. Working under many disadvantages, he produced far greater results than is generally realized, and set a standard for the work in geology in the State which is still followed. While paying special attention to the economic side of geology, Prof. Cox did not lose sight of the purely scientific aspects of the science, as the numerous valuable monographs in the reports published under his direction indicate. Closely associated with him in this work, and largely assisting in its organization and execution, was Dr. G. M. Levette, to

whose hands were entrusted, for the most part, the chemical analysis of the coals. No one but a chemist can fully appreciate the vast amount of work represented in the various tabulated reports of coal analysis as they appear in the successive volumes of the State Geological Report.

Then there was John Collett, who knew Indiana more intimately, from a geological standpoint, at least, than any one who has not made that science a special study; who, by his investigations, and with the assistance of his collaborators, did much to impress the country at large with the varied character and high value of the natural resources of Indiana. The result of this work through all these years has been that Indiana, though relatively small in area, is ranked among the first in the value and variety of its natural resources. Because of this careful study, immigration has been attracted, manufactories have been established and the wealth of the State increased many times the expense attending the investigations.

Not least among the great men of science was Dr. E. O. Hovey, the noted geologist of Wabash College, under whose hand grew the Hovey Museum. His work was chiefly on the side of pure science and among fossils, but by the development of the crinoid beds at Crawfordsville, and by the discovery and description of new species, he made for himself a reputation which extends far beyond State bounds, and beyond the bounds of our country. Yet it was more as one who influenced the young men of the State for good than as a mere scientist that he is best remembered. He did much for the State through science, yet much more because of his personal influence upon his students.

JAMES B. EADS.

One of the greatest civil engineers of the world was James B. Eads, born in Indiana, May 23, 1820. From his earliest infancy he displayed a love for machinery, and a wonderful ingenuity in constructing model saw mills, fire engines, steamboats and other objects. It was a passion with him nothing could overcome. In 1833 he removed to St. Louis, and that city was thereafter his home. He devoted himself to the study of civil engineering, and constructed a diving bell, after a design of his own, and in

1842 engaged in the work of raising the cargoes of sunken steamboats. After that he applied himself to the work of raising the boats themselves, and many of the finest and most valuable vessels that had been sunk in the Mississippi River, or its tributaries, were thus saved by him.

He established the first works for the manufacture of glass ever constructed west of the Ohio River. In 1856 he made a proposition to the Government to keep the Mississippi, Missouri, Ohio and Arkansas Rivers free from snags, wrecks and other obstructions, for a term of years. The Government did not accept the proposition, but doubtless if it had done so fewer steamers would have been wrecked on those rivers and thus a vast amount of property would have been saved. In 1861, shortly after the breaking out of the civil war, he was called to Washington by President Lincoln, who desired to consult with him as to the feasibility of constructing light draft iron-clad gunboats for use on the western rivers. He was authorized by the Government to construct a number of such boats, and such was his energy that within one hundred days he had designed, built, equipped and sent to the front eight iron-clad gunboats. These boats were used to attack and capture Fort Henry, one month before the Monitor had its fight with the Merrimac.

He constructed a number of other boats for the Government, and they were used by Grant in his attempts on Vicksburg, and afterward at the siege and capture of Mobile. This energy and skill brought him into national fame. From 1867 to 1874 he was employed in the construction of the great steel arch bridge across the Mississippi River at St. Louis, which is one of the notable bridges of the world. It has a clear span of 570 feet. He had long given study to the condition of the Mississippi River, and laid before the Government a plan for a deep waterway from the Gulf of Mexico to the mouth of the Ohio River, one of the most gigantic hydraulic schemes ever proposed by man. It was based upon the idea of preventing the banks of the Mississippi from caving in. The Government contracted with him for a system of jetties at the mouth of the Mississippi.

He was fond of proposing and working out grand schemes, and among his propositions was one to build a ship railway across the Isthmus to connect the Atlantic

and Pacific oceans. He claimed it was more feasible than a canal, and less expensive. His proposition was to construct a railway that would carry the largest steamship, in a sort of cradle, across the Isthmus. He received the Albert Medal from England for his scientific attainments. He died March 8, 1887.

INDIANA'S GREAT BOTANISTS.

Indiana's most distinguished botanist, and one whose reputation is international, is John M. Coulter, head professor of botany in Chicago University. Dr. Coulter was educated at Hanover College, from which he was graduated in 1870 with the highest honors, since which time he has been a tireless worker in his chosen field, though finding time to study the great educational problems of the day in such a way as to give him rank among the foremost educators of the time. In 1872 and 1873 he was botanist of Hayden's Governmental Survey, the outcome of this work being "A Synopsis of the Flora of Colorado," published with the collaboration of Prof. T. C. Porter. From 1874 to 1879 he was professor of natural science at Hanover College, which position he resigned to accept a similar chair in Wabash College, where he remained until 1891. These twelve years at Crawfordsville were among the most productive periods of a busy career. In 1891 he was elected President of Indiana University to succeed President Jordan. In 1893 this position was resigned to accept the presidency of Lake Forest University, at Lake Forest, Illinois. This position Dr. Coulter held for three years, resigning in 1896 to become head professor of botany in Chicago University.

Another Indiana botanist of national reputation is Dr. Charles R. Barnes, of the University of Wisconsin, who has been closely associated with Dr. Coulter in botanical work. He is one of the editors of the "Botanical Gazette" and a collaborator in the preparation of the "Hand Book of Plant Dissection." Dr. Barnes was born at Madison, receiving his education at Hanover College, from which institution he was graduated in 1877. After teaching in the public schools for a few years he became professor of botany in Purdue University, which position he held until 1887, when he resigned to accept his present position. In

addition to his work in the mosses, in which he is perhaps the highest authority in America, Dr. Barnes has found time to do much valuable work in physiological botany.

Dr. Joseph N. Rose, Assistant United States Botanist, was born in Franklin County, and was graduated from Wabash College, in which institution he received his botanical training.

Among the young scientists of the State Professor Stanley Coulter, of Purdue University, is entitled to rank. He was educated at Hanover, being graduated in 1873. He received from Hanover the degree of Ph. D. in 1888. After his graduation he gave himself up to teaching, and for ten years taught in the public schools. Since then he has devoted his time to college work. He has been at Purdue since 1887, and now is professor of biology, and has direction of the biological laboratory of that institution. He took a special course of studies in botany at Harvard, and has taught in the summer school of the University of Wisconsin. He is a fellow of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and a Fellow of the Indiana Academy of Science.

DR. JORDAN.

While Dr. Jordan is not a native of Indiana, still the State can lay claim to him, for it was here he practically began his life work, and started on the road to fame he has since traveled. He was born at Gainesville, New York, January 10, 1851. In 1868 he entered Cornell University, and was graduated in 1872.

In 1872-73 Dr. Jordan was professor in Lombard University, Galesburg, Illinois. In 1873-74 he was lecturer on botany in the Anderson School at Penikese, and in 1875 in the Harvard Summer School at Cumberland Gap. He was teacher in the Indianapolis High School, 1874-75; professor of biology at Butler University, 1875-79; professor of zoology in Indiana University, 1879-85, when he became president of the University. He has been president of Leand Stanford, Jr., University since 1891.

OTHER EMINENT SCIENTISTS.

While not a native of Indiana, no man in later years has done more or better work in the zoological line than Dr.

Carl Eigenmann, of Indiana University. Although a specialist in fishes, Dr. Eigenmann's studies are not confined to the classification of forms, but extend to the broader and more profound problems concerning variation, heredity and environment. For several years at Turkey Lake he has gathered about him a large number of enthusiastic students, who, under his guidance, have been accumulating large series of data along definitely planned lines of investigation. The results already reached are sufficient evidence of the great scientific value of the work. Dr. Eigenmann has published largely and is one of the recognized authorities on the subject which he treats.

Harvey W. Wiley, chief of the Division of Chemistry of the United States Department of Agriculture at Washington, D. C., was born at Kent, Indiana. He was graduated from Hanover College in 1867, receiving the degree of A. B. Subsequently the degrees of A. M., Ph. D. and LL. D. were conferred upon him by the same institution. He commenced his public career as professor of Latin and Greek in Butler University, where he remained three years. In 1871 he took the degree of M. D. at the Indiana Medical College, and the same year was a teacher of science in the Indianapolis High School. In 1873 he was graduated from Harvard University with the degree of S. B., and in 1874 accepted the chair of chemistry in Butler University which he occupied for only a short time, being called to a similar position in Purdue University, the agricultural college of Indiana, where he remained until 1883, with the exception of one year spent at the University of Berlin. From 1881 to 1883 he served as State Chemist of Indiana and for three years (1874-7) was professor of chemistry in the Indiana Medical College.

Of the younger scientists of Indiana no one perhaps deserves more praise than Amos W. Butler, of Brookville. Certainly no one has given more liberally of time and effort to setting a high standard for Indiana in lines scientific. It was through the energy of Mr. Butler that the Indiana Academy of Science, recognized as one of the most thoroughly organized and efficient in the country, was established. By his persistent efforts during its earlier years it was brought into greater and greater prominence, until

now it is a celebrated institution. Mr. Butler is an undisputed authority on birds, his knowledge of those of the State being based upon years of patient observation, supplemented by voluminous notes and large collections of specimens.

Among others who are maintaining the record of the State for scientific work it is difficult to select, so numerous are they and so worthy. Among the most prominent who are to the "manor born" are Drs. O. P. Jenkins, of Leland Stanford, Jr., University, and B. W. Evermann, expert to the United States Fish Commission. Both of these gentlemen received their education in the State, and both, through their work while in the State, achieved the reputations which served to bring them advancement. Dr. Jenkins, while he has made many contributions to our knowledge of fishes, is by taste and training a physiologist, the two texts upon this subject in the Indiana series of texts being from his pen. He is a tireless worker and a born teacher. The work of Dr. Evermann has been largely among fishes, and his numerous reports published by the Government are sufficient evidence of the high character of his work.

It would be impossible to close this sketch without some reference to that Nestor among the men of science of Indiana, Professor Joseph Moore, of Earlham College. With all the enthusiasm of youth his work is continued along his chosen lines of geology and anthropology, and the amount of labor which he performs puts to shame many of the younger workers of today. His knowledge of the fossils of the State is perhaps superior to that of any other person now living. His work has brought to him reputation, while his character has brought the personal love and reverence of every scientist in the State.

There are others equally great, equally worthy of mention, but enough has been given to justify the claim that the place of Indiana in science is a proud one. It may be a question whether the promise for the future is as great as the past would lead us to expect. To us it seems that the future must be more brilliant than the past, because its

virile strength and enthusiasm seems to have descended undiminished to the present generation of scientific workers.

PAINTERS AND SCULPTORS.

Indiana has won a place in the world of art, as well as in literature and science, and the works of several of its artists are well known, and take high rank. Jacob Cox was the father of art in Indiana. He lived and worked with a sincere devotion to his profession. He early displayed a talent for painting and turned his attention to portrait painting as a profession, and enjoyed an enviable reputation in that direction. Many of the prominent citizens of the State were among his sitters.

Following Mr. Cox was I. O. Eaton, who one day entered the studio of the venerable artist with the announcement, "I want to be a painter." There was something about the awkward youth that interested Mr. Cox, and he gave him the best instruction he could. After studying for some time under Mr. Cox, Mr. Eaton went to Cincinnati and became one of the most popular painters of that city. He finally removed to New York, and almost at once took rank among the foremost artists.

Wilbur Woodward, of Greensburg, gave promise of becoming one of the great painters of the world. By the help of some of the art-loving citizens of Cincinnati he went to Paris, where he remained for some time. Broken in health he returned to his home to die, just as permanent success was within his reach. Samuel Richards, of Anderson, was another promising artist who passed away in early life just as fame was coming to him, after studying in Munich.

The most distinguished Indiana artist is William M. Chase. He began his career in Indianapolis, under the encouragement of Jacob Cox. He studied in Munich and Paris, finally making his home in New York, where he has won an international fame. T. C. Steele, of Indianapolis, is widely known as a successful painter, both of portraits and landscapes. He was a student at Munich for eight years. Several of his portraits are celebrated. Perhaps the best known are those of James Whitcomb Riley and ex-President Harrison. Mr. William Forsyth, also of Indianapolis and a student of Munich, is known as a successful painter.

of landscapes. He has given nearly all his attention to Indiana subjects. His works are well known in the exhibitions in the East. Mr. Otto Stark is well known in the Eastern cities as a painter both in oil and water colors. J. Otis Adams, of Muncie, has devoted himself exclusively to Indiana subjects, and has painted several pictures that have attracted wide attention. R. B. Gruelle, as painter both in oil and water colors, stands high among artists and the lovers of art. For several years he devoted himself to portrait painting, but in later life turned his attention to landscapes with decided and marked success. His works are scattered over the country. "A Drama of the Elements," a large marine picture, is his most ambitious production and has been greatly admired. Mr. Frank Scott, now maintaining a studio in Paris, has won distinction in Europe as a figure painter. He is a regular contributor to the Salon, and his works attract more than a passing attention in that great institution.

Mr. Francis Chevilla, one of Boston's most popular artists, is an Indianian by birth. Amalia Kussner, ranking to-day as the greatest of living miniature painters, was born in Terre Haute, and there began her remarkable career.

In the plastic arts John Mahoney has won a distinguished place. He has a strong and original talent, and has done much work that is not only creditable to himself, but has conferred honor on his State. His works are found in Philadelphia, Boston, Cincinnati, Milwaukee and other cities. He executed the finishing groups of the Plymouth monument, at Plymouth, Massachusetts. Indianapolis possesses several of his best works. His figure of Governor Whitcomb will compare favorably with the best work of any American sculptor.

Miss Frances M. Goodwin has taken high rank as a sculptor. Her first public work was a statue of "Education," for which she received a commission from the Indiana Board of Lady Managers at the World's Fair in 1893. She also executed a bust of Vice-President Schuyler Colfax, ordered for the Senate Chamber at Washington.

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